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# A Study of Relationships between the Job Satisfaction of Secondary School Subordinate Administrators and Their Perceptions of the Bases of Power of Their Principals

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A STUDY OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE JOE SATISFACTION  
OF SECONDARY SCHOOL SUBORDINATE ADMINISTRATORS  
AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF THE BASES OF POWER  
OF THEIR PRINCIPALS

by

Thomas J. Cachur

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the  
School of Education of Loyola University in Partial  
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctor of Education

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Wisdom is better than all the most precious things:

And whatsoever may be desired cannot be compared to it.

Proverbs

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Lastly, a special thank you and love to my wife, Sandy, for her understanding, support, and encouragement throughout my doctoral program, for "without her, I could not be."

## VITA

The author, Thomas J. Cachur, is the son of John J. Cachur and Helen A. Cachur. He was born in Chicago, Illinois, on May 18, 1944. He graduated from DeLaSalle High School in 1962. He received his Bachelor of Arts degree in English in 1965 from St. Joseph's College, Rensselaer, Indiana. In 1967, he received his Master of Arts degree in English, and in 1980, his Doctor of Education degree. Both degrees are from Loyola University of Chicago.

Thomas J. Cachur began his educational career in LaGrange, Illinois, as an English teacher at Lyons Township High School. He also served as Assistant Dean and Dean of Students. In 1973, he was appointed Administrative Assistant to the Superintendent in Maine Township District 207. He now serves as the Assistant Principal at Maine Township High School North.

At the present time, Thomas J. Cachur, and his wife, Sandy, and their four children--Kim, Jeff, Steve, and Tom--reside in Des Plaines, Illinois.

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## CHAPTER I

### THE PROBLEM

The word "power" has long seemed to possess a negative connotation. One hears of political power, of black power, of teacher power, and so on. The concept of power is also central to an organization. According to Robert Kahn<sup>1</sup> the existence of conflict (disagreement or opposition) gives rise to the exercise of power; the more prevalent conflict is in an organization, the greater the need for power. As Kahn explains:

. . . disagreement over goals and means is typical of human organizations. Such organizations function successfully only because the structure of power and authority is sufficiently strong to overcome these potential conflicts or at least to displace their expression from the performance of the organizational task to some other time and place.<sup>2</sup>

Thus power is essential to the life of an organization; it is essential that an organization be able to exert power over the behavior of its members, for power prohibits the emergence of conflicts which would subvert organizational effectiveness.

Power, then, viewed as the ability of one person or a group of persons to influence the behavior of others is related to leadership, for leadership inevitably involves the ability to influence other

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<sup>1</sup>R. Kahn and E. Boulding, Power and Conflict in Organizations (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1964), p. 4.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

people in some way. In this approach to leadership, the operation of power should be clearly recognized. In an organization activities must be coordinated, instructions must be given and accepted, persuasion must be accomplished, motivation to strive for organizational goals must be generated, and harmonious interpersonal relations must be engendered. Certain individuals must have power to exert such influence if they are to contribute to organizational functions significantly and thus to perform acts of leadership.

When the performance of several important group functions is assigned to a single office, the operation of power is especially evident. The occupant of such an office is usually provided with the resources needed for the exertion of influence. For example, he may have the right to hire, fire, promote, and set wages; he may possess expert knowledge due to special training or experience; and, in well-run organizations, his decisions are supported by other officials. The importance of the possession of power for effective leadership is well illustrated in a study by Fiedler who indicated that groups are more effective when functioning under leaders who have a particular trait of personality--but only if such leaders also have adequate power resulting from the support of other officials.<sup>3</sup> Pelz suggested a similar conclusion in his research in a large manufacturing plant.<sup>4</sup> He found that first-line supervisors whose orientation to subordinates was supportive

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<sup>3</sup>F. Fiedler, "Personality and Situational Determinants of Leadership Effectiveness," in Group Dynamics: Research and Theory, ed. E. Cartwright and A. Zander (New York: Harper & Row, 1968), p. 362.

<sup>4</sup>D. Pelz, "Influence: A Key to Effective Leadership in the Front-Line Supervisor," Personnel XXIX (November, 1952), pp. 209-217.

of their interests received positive evaluations from these subordinates but only if the supervisor was seen as being influential in his department. Occupants of offices of leadership can not perform the functions of leadership unless they possess sufficient power.

The topic of power can be studied in several ways--in terms of the individual exerting influence or in terms of the person subjected to influence. Several studies have examined the sources of an individual's power and his motivations for exercising power.<sup>5</sup> Another has examined the methods used in exerting influence.<sup>6</sup>

When studying the concept of power from the opposite point of view, that is--the individual subjected to influence--several questions can be examined: What conditions affect a person's willingness to be influenced? or What are the motive bases of power and influence?

Acts of leadership, if they are to be effective, must rely upon some basis of power. According to Cartwright and Zander, "little research has been conducted to discover the effects upon groups of having leaders who employ predominantly one or another basis of power."<sup>7</sup> The basis of power is defined as the relationship between two individuals which is the source of that power. The literature is full of theorists

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<sup>5</sup>Cartwright and Schopler provide a good summary of much of this work. See D. Cartwright, "Influence, Leadership, and Control," in J. C. March, Handbook of Organizations (Chicago, 1965), pp. 1-47 and J. Schopler, "Social Power" in L. Berkowitz, Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, volume 2 (New York, 1965), pp. 177-218.

<sup>6</sup>M. Rosenberg and L. Pearlin, "Power Orientations in the Mental Hospital," Human Relations XV (1962), pp. 335-350.

<sup>7</sup>D. Cartwright and A. Zander, Group Dynamics: Research and Theory (New York: Harper and Row, 1968), p. 310.

who describe different bases of power. Game theorists such as Thibaut and Kelley<sup>8</sup> and exchange theorists such as Blau<sup>9</sup> and Homans<sup>10</sup> define several sources of power. Etzioni also describes a typology of power--coercive power, utilitarian power, and normative power.<sup>11</sup> Although, as indicated there are undoubtedly many possible bases of power which may be distinguished, much of the literature points to five bases of power as defined by French and Raven.<sup>12</sup>

In examining the question of what are the bases of power Cartwright and Zander state, "it is reasonable to assume that an individual's reactions to any influence attempt will depend basically upon his view of the motivational consequences to him of accepting or rejecting it."<sup>13</sup> They offer the following example:

Let us consider the situation of a faculty member who is asked by his department chairman to serve on a certain committee. Clearly there are many reasons that might lead him to accept the assignment. He might accept because he believes that it would enhance his chances of being promoted or receiving an increase in salary. He might fear that if he did not he would acquire the reputation of being "uncooperative." He might also take on the assignment because he admires the chairman and believes that the chairman would do so if he were in the member's shoes. He might

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<sup>8</sup>J. W. Thibaut and H. H. Kelley, The Social Psychology of Groups (New York: Wiley, 1959).

<sup>9</sup>P. Blau, Exchange and Power in Social Life (New York: Wiley, 1964).

<sup>10</sup>G. Homans, Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms (London, 1961).

<sup>11</sup>A. Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1961).

<sup>12</sup>J. French and B. Raven, "The Bases of Social Power," in Cartwright and Zander, pp. 263-268.

<sup>13</sup>Cartwright and Zander, p. 225.

accept because he feels that such service is the duty of any "good" member of the department. Or he might agree to serve simply because he thinks that he would enjoy it.<sup>14</sup>

The motivations possibly affecting the above faculty member's decision may be grouped under five broad headings as defined by French and Raven<sup>15</sup> who identify and describe the following five bases for the power which person A can exert over person B:

1. Reward Power is defined as power whose basis is the ability to reward. It is founded on B's perception that A can mediate rewards for him.
2. Coercive Power is similar to reward power but is founded on B's perception that A can mediate punishment for him.
3. Legitimate Power is based on the perception by B that A has a legitimate right to prescribe behavior for him.
4. Referent Power is based on B's identification with A.
5. Expert Power is based on the perception that A has some special knowledge or experience.

These five bases of power represent a useful framework for studying supervisory power over subordinates. Several researchers, in particular Vroom, Hoppock, and Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman<sup>16</sup> have supported the general theoretical notion that job satisfaction may be a function of the nature of the influence dimension in an organization. Several studies have examined the relationship between the bases of power and job satisfaction.

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<sup>14</sup>Ibid.

<sup>15</sup>French and Raven, "Bases of Social Power," pp. 263-268.

<sup>16</sup>See Vroom, V. Work and Motivation. New York: Wiley, 1964; Hoppock, R. Job Satisfaction. New York: Harper and Row, 1935; and Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., and Snyderman, B. The Motivation to Work. New York: Wiley, 1959.

Bachman, Bowers, and Marcus<sup>17</sup> examined the bases of supervisory power in five organizational settings--salesmen in branch offices, faculty in liberal arts colleges, agents in life insurance agencies, production workers in an appliance firm, and workers in a utility company. Their research found that the most important reason for complying with the wishes of supervisors was response to legitimate power and expert power. Referent and reward power provided the strongest and most consistent positive correlation with worker satisfaction. Coercive power drew the most negative correlation with satisfaction.

In another study, Bachman, Smith, and Slesinger<sup>18</sup>, examined the relationships among bases of social power and satisfaction and performance in a professional sales office. Their results suggest that referent power and expert power yield higher positive and significant correlations with performance and satisfaction, while reward, coercive, and legitimate power bases yield some significant but negative correlations with performance and satisfaction. While some research has been conducted, particularly in sales and industry, to determine the effects upon subordinates of having superiors who employ predominantly one or another basis of power, according to Miller, there seems to be "very limited empirical investigation of the relationship between the nature

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<sup>17</sup>J. G. Bachman, D. G. Bowers, and P. M. Marcus, "Bases of Supervisory Power: A Comparative Study in Five Organizational Settings," in Control in Organizations, ed. A. S. Tannenbaum (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1968), pp. 229-238.

<sup>18</sup>J. G. Bachman, C. G. Smith, and J. A. Slesinger, "Control Performance, and Satisfaction: An Analysis of Structural and Individual Effects," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, IV (1966), pp. 127-136.



of social power and job satisfaction as an organizational variable in public schools."<sup>19</sup>

In two separate studies, Miller<sup>20</sup> and Hornstein<sup>21</sup> examined the relationship between influence and satisfaction in school organizations. Their data suggest that the effects of superior-subordinate relations in school systems are very much like those of various industrial, sales, and voluntary organizations. "Teachers reported greatest satisfaction with their principal and school system when they perceived that they and their principals were mutually influential, especially when their principal's power to influence emanated from their perceiving him as an expert."<sup>22</sup>

#### Purpose of the Study

The studies by Miller and Hornstein have explored the bases of power in the principal-teacher relationship in an elementary school setting. This study examines the bases of power in the principal--department chairmen, dean, and assistant principal (from hereon, to be referred to as subordinate administrators) relationship in the secondary school setting. In their chapter entitled, "Authority and the School Executive," Sergiovanni and Carver discuss the necessity for such a proposed study:

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<sup>19</sup>Don E. Miller, "A Study of Relationships Between Job Satisfaction of Teachers and Their Perceptions of the Bases of Social Influence of Their Principals" (Doctoral Dissertation, Syracuse University, 1973), p. 3.

<sup>20</sup>Ibid.

<sup>21</sup>Harvey Hornstein, "Influence and Satisfaction in Organizations: A Replication," Sociology of Education, XLI, 4 (Fall, 1968), pp. 380-389.

<sup>22</sup>Ibid., p. 380.

Numerous questions about authority (power) in schools are suggested by the results reported above. The first and most obvious has to do with authority relations among administrators. Respondents in the Bachman and Hornstein studies were technical-level subordinates responding to their immediate superior. The question is whether there are differences between administrator reaction and teacher reaction to the utilization of various power sources by their respective supervisors.<sup>23</sup>

The building principal is an educational leader. The overall responsibility of the principal is to provide leadership and coordination which will encourage his staff to work together toward the best possible school program. Because the principal is the professional leader of the school staff, his administrative behavior does influence the behavior of his staff, in particular, his subordinate administrators. The intention of this study is to examine the relationship between the basis of power and job satisfaction in school organizations.

Using the theoretical framework of the bases of power developed by French and Raven, the focus of this study is to investigate the relationship between the bases of power which selected subordinate administrators ascribe to the administrative behavior of their principals and subordinate administrator job satisfaction. Two specific questions are being investigated:

1. Why do subordinate administrators comply with the requests of their principals?
2. How are those reasons related to individual job satisfaction?

Since this study is concerned with interpersonal influence and power, the study has been limited to the superordinate-subordinate relationship of principal to department chairmen, deans, and assistant

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<sup>23</sup> T. Sergiovanni and F. Carver, The New School Executive, A Theory of Administration (University of Illinois, 1974), p. 166.

principals. As administrators of the large, comprehensive secondary schools in the study population, the subordinate administrators are believed to be sophisticated, well-trained and experienced individuals who are capable of making accurate assessments of their principals' power bases.

### Methodology of the Study

The population for this study consisted of selected secondary school administrators, namely department chairmen, deans, and assistant principals in the north-northwest suburban area of Chicago. This area was selected for several reasons. The school districts within this area are located along the northern and northwestern perimeter of the City of Chicago, thus having a definite metropolitan flavor. These school districts are also recognized as some of the finest school districts in the state as well as in the country. Recently, five of the high schools in the study population--Evanston, Highland Park, Maine South, New Trier East, and New Trier West--were named among the top ten secondary schools in the entire Chicago suburban area in a series of articles in the Chicago Tribune.<sup>24</sup> Within these districts, there is a high sophistication of organizational development; the administrators are well-trained and experienced. The districts vary in size, wealth, and organizational structure and provide a good cross section of programs, facilities, and staffs. A listing of the study population is provided in Appendix A.

To obtain the necessary data to test the hypotheses of this study, a two-stage procedure was employed. First, a questionnaire

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<sup>24</sup>Chicago Tribune, January 7-16, 1979.

survey was mailed to the population of this study. The following instruments were used:

1. Bases of Power Scale: to measure the bases of power subordinate administrators perceive as important to them for doing what their principals suggest or want them to do.

2. School Survey: to measure subordinate administrators' job satisfaction.

Both of these instruments are listed in Appendix B. Second, as a follow-up to the questionnaire survey, a 10% sampling of the study population was interviewed using the structured interview schedule listed in Appendix C.

The Bases of Power Scale was adopted from a study by Butler.<sup>25</sup> The questionnaire uses a continuum ranging from 1-5. Each respondent was asked to indicate the degree of his cognitive perception of his answer to each statement on this five point scale. The subordinate administrators were instructed to indicate on the scale by circling the number after each statement that best described the importance they attributed to that particular item for complying with the requests of their principals.

The responses on the Bases of Power Scale were weighted so that a value of 5.0 represents the highest possible rating, and 1.0 represents the lowest possible rating. The mean ratings of each of the bases of power were calculated in order to measure the level of importance the subordinate administrators perceive for complying with the requests of their principals.

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<sup>25</sup>R. Butler, "Power, Technology, Inter Role Relations and Role Characteristics: A Study of User Support Function Relations in NASA" (Doctoral Dissertation, Northwestern University, 1973), p. 187.

Subordinate administrator job satisfaction was measured by the School Survey, a self-reporting work attitudes questionnaire, which was adapted from a study by Coughlan.<sup>26</sup> After each item or statement, the subordinate administrator was asked to respond according to a three point scale: "Agree," "?," or "Disagree."

Since the mean ratings from the Bases of Power Scale and the measurement from the School Survey are both continuous scores, the Pearson product-moment correlation was used to test the hypotheses. The Pearson is subject to a smaller standard error than other correlational techniques and is generally preferred when its use is possible because it proves a more stable measure of relationship.

As a follow-up to the questionnaires, a 10% sampling of the study population was interviewed using the interview schedule listed in Appendix C. Such important and complex factors as power and job satisfaction should not be studied merely through the above briefly described questionnaire technique. The interview permits the researcher to follow up leads and thus obtain more data and greater clarity. As Borg and Gall explain:

A serious criticism of questionnaire studies is that they are often shallow, that is, fail to dig deeply enough to provide a true picture of opinions and feelings. In contrast, the skilled interviewer, through the careful motivation of the subject and maintenance of rapport, can obtain information that the subject would probably not reveal under any other circumstances.<sup>27</sup>

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<sup>26</sup>Robert Coughlan, "Teacher Work Values, Social Structure, and Job Satisfaction in Relatively Closed and Open School Organizational Systems" (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Chicago, 1968).

<sup>27</sup>W. Borg and M. Gall, Educational Research, An Introduction (New York, 1974), p. 212.

Using the interview schedule also serves as a further check on the validity of the questionnaire instruments. The interview additionally provides the researcher the opportunity to determine if other factors exist and allows the individual being interviewed to suggest other solutions that the questionnaire did not provide. The interview schedule employed in this study has been influenced by two sources--Peabody<sup>28</sup> and Chase.<sup>29</sup>

### Hypotheses of the Study

Subordinate administrator job satisfaction will be greater when subordinate administrators perceive their principal's power to influence them emanating from the bases of expert and referent power than from the bases of legitimate, reward, and coercive power. The following hypotheses will be tested.

1. There is a positive correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principal's use of expert power.

2. There is a positive correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principal's use of referent power.

3. There is a negative correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principal's use of reward power.

4. There is a negative correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principal's use of coercive power.

5. There is a negative correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principal's use of legitimate power.

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<sup>28</sup>R. L. Peabody, Perceptions of Organizational Authority: A Comparative Analysis (New York, 1962), pp. 143-147.

<sup>29</sup>Francis S. Chase, "Factors Productive of Satisfaction in Teaching" (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Chicago, 1951).

## Definition of Terms

### Power

The potentiality for inducing forces in other persons toward acting or changing in the direction intended by the influencer.

### Basis of Power

Source of power.

### French and Raven Bases of Power

A five-fold typology of power by which an individual can exert influence over another: reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert.

### Reward Power

Based on a subordinate's perception that a superior has the ability to mediate rewards for him.

### Coercive Power

Based on a subordinate's perception that a superior has the ability to mediate punishments for him.

### Legitimate Power

Based on internalized values which dictate that there is a legitimate right to influence and an obligation to accept this influence.

### Referent Power

Based on the desire of a subordinate to identify with a superior.

### Expert Power

Based on a subordinate's perception that a leader has some special knowledge or expertise in a given area.

### Job Satisfaction

Positive attitudes toward a job based on specific personal and organizational dimensions of the work environment, e.g. working conditions, informal and formal relations between individuals, financial incentives, etc.

### Subordinate Administrators

Secondary school building administrators who report directly to a building principal, for example, assistant or associate principals, directors of guidance, deans, and department chairmen.

### Power Scale

The instrument used to measure the bases of power subordinate administrators perceive as important to them for complying with the requests of their principals.

### School Survey

The instrument used to measure subordinate administrator's job satisfaction.

### Limitations of the Study

In order to establish a field of study that would be representative, the following limitations are noted:

1. The study reflects the perceptions of 324 secondary school subordinate administrators.
2. The application of one theory of the bases of power was implied in the analysis of the data.
3. The study concerns itself with the perceptions of secondary school subordinate administrators within north-northwest suburban Cook County and one district in Lake County, Illinois, as they pertain to



secondary school principals only.

4. The study is based on the assumption that all participants would complete the questionnaires and the interview schedule truthfully.
5. The study represents a limited, but appropriate analysis of the data.

### Organization of the Study

Chapter II reviews the literature in eight sections. The first five sections are concerned with the topic of power: a definition of power is proposed; various attributes of power are discussed; and the French and Raven bases of power are further defined and then compared to other bases. The sixth section reviews significant theories and studies of job satisfaction. The seventh section examines the limited research which has investigated the relationship between the bases of power and job satisfaction. The eighth section indicates the implications for present study.

Chapter III deals with the design of the study, in particular, the composition of the study group population, the Bases of Power Scale, the School Survey, the administration and scoring of these instruments, the interview schedule, and the statistical treatment.

Chapter IV is concerned with the results of the study.

Chapter V includes summary, conclusions, and recommendations for further study.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

#### The Concept of Power

The study of power and the related concept of influence has long been of interest to social scientists and political scientists.

Mere mention of the word makes one think of Machiavelli, Hobbes, Nietzsche, Russell, and a host of others concerned with the philosophy and practice of government. Topics discussed under the heading of power deal typically with the various forms of government, war and diplomacy, operation of the military in government, relations between the economic system and government, such political processes as influencing the vote, exerting pressure, or controlling the disaffected, class and caste, and revolution.<sup>1</sup>

In past years, empirical studies of power and influence have been conducted in communities, organizations, informal groups, and laboratories. Many formal theories of the concept of power have been developed, with representative examples being the work of Dahl, Emerson, Thibaut and Kelley, French, and March.<sup>2</sup> The problem is that there seems

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<sup>1</sup>D. Cartwright, "A Field Theoretical Conception of Power," in Studies In Social Power, ed. D. Cartwright (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan, 1959), p. 183.

<sup>2</sup>See R. A. Dahl, "The Concept of Power," Behavioral Science, II (1957), pp. 202-215; R. M. Emerson, "Power Dependence Relations," American Sociological Review, XXVII (1962), pp. 31-41; J. W. Thibaut and H. H. Kelley, The Social Psychology of Groups (New York: Wiley, 1959); J. R. P. French, "A Formal Theory of Social Power," The Psychological Review, LXIII (1956), pp. 181-194; J. G. March, "An Introduction to the Theory and Measurement of Influence," American Political Science Review, XLIX (1955), pp. 431-451; J. G. March, "Measurement Concepts in the Theory of Influence," Journal of Politics, XIX (1957), pp. 202-226.

to be a different definition of power for each individual who discusses the concept. According to Kornberg and Perry, "There exist almost as many definitions of power as there are theorists writing on the subject."<sup>3</sup>

Some theorists have viewed power as coercive force, for example, Bierstedt, "Power is the ability to employ force."<sup>4</sup> Others have defined the concept in terms of the determination of behavior:

A has power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something that B would not otherwise do. (Dahl)<sup>5</sup>

or

For the assertion 'A has power over B,' we can substitute the assertion 'A's behavior causes B's behavior.' (Simon)<sup>6</sup>

or

One person has power over another if he can perform an act that will result in a change in the other person. (Cartwright and Zander)<sup>7</sup>

While there seems to be no agreement regarding a common definition of power, in general power is usually related to the idea of "getting things" done through influencing other people. In this study, power is defined in the terms used by Bither and Busch: "Social power is the potentiality for inducing forces in other persons toward acting

<sup>3</sup>A. Kornberg and S. D. Perry, "Conceptual Models of Power and Their Applicability to Empirical Research in Politics," Political Science, XVIII (1966), p. 53.

<sup>4</sup>F. Bierstedt, "An Analysis of Social Power," American Sociological Review, XV (1950), p. 733.

<sup>5</sup>R. A. Dahl, "The Concept of Power," Behavioral Science, II (1957), p. 202.

<sup>6</sup>H. A. Simon, Models of Man (New York: Wiley, 1957), p. 5.

<sup>7</sup>D. Cartwright and A. Zander, Group Dynamics: Research and Theory, p. 216.

or changing in the direction intended by the influencer."<sup>8</sup> As Busch indicates, this conceptualization is compatible with the three major theoretical orientations on power: (a) social exchange, (b) field-theoretical, and (c) political science-decision making.<sup>9</sup> Using this definition, the following discussion regarding several characteristics or attributes of power is intended to clarify the reader's understanding of the concept.

#### Power: A Relationship Among Persons

Most theorists believe that power or influence should be approached as a relationship between two social entities, such as individuals, roles, groups, or nations. Because this study centers on the topic of power within an organization, the focus is on power relationships between individuals, specifically in superordinate-subordinate relationships. Clark's discussion of three orientations toward the concept of power, namely, the individualistic, the dyad, and the systemic, provides a better understanding of this notion of power as a relationship among individuals.<sup>10</sup>

The first orientation, the individualistic, focuses "on the

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<sup>8</sup>S. W. Bither and P. S. Busch, Social Power: A Perspective for Viewing the Buyer-Seller Dyad in Industrial Marketing. Working Series in Marketing Research, College of Business Administration, Pennsylvania State University, 1972, p. 5.

<sup>9</sup>P. S. Busch, "An Experimental Analysis of the Expert and Referent Bases of Social Power in the Buyer-Seller Dyad" (Doctoral Dissertation, Department of Business Administration, Pennsylvania State University, 1974), p. 19.

<sup>10</sup>Terry N. Clark, Community Structure and Decision-Making: Comparative Analysis (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1968), p. 45.

degree to which a single actor achieves his desired goals."<sup>11</sup>

Representative of this view is Weber who states: "Power (Macht) is the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance regardless of the basis on which this probability rests."<sup>12</sup> The individual actor and his goals are emphasized in this orientation while other actors and the structure of the system are neglected.

In the second orientation, the dyadic, power is thought of as a relationship between two actors, in which one is able to effect change in the second (recall the definitions of power of Dahl and Cartwright). This formation does not refer to goals or to the broader structure within which power is exercised.

In the third orientation, the systemic, power is described as "the potential ability of an actor or actors to select, to change, and to attain the goals of a social system."<sup>13</sup> Power is conceived as a "system-relevant property" which is not readily transferable to another arena. Thus power is not viewed as a characteristic of an individual actor nor as a property relating two actors.

Butler suggests that the dyadic and systemic orientations of power are not contrary but complimentary.<sup>14</sup> The systemic view of power indicates a type of relation illustrated in Figure 1, where actors  $A_n$

<sup>11</sup>Ibid.

<sup>12</sup>M. Weber, The Theory of Social and Economic Organization (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1947), p. 152.

<sup>13</sup>Clark, p. 46.

<sup>14</sup>R. Butler, p. 74.

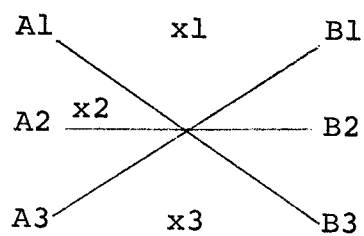


Figure 1

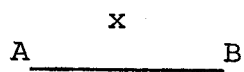


Figure 2

and  $B_n$  are related to each other through a common interest,  $x_n$ .

This interest may take the form of rewards, information, or resources in general. The possession of  $x_n$  by  $A_n$  forms the base of A's power over B; the nature of this base of power will be developed later. Figure 2 identifies the basic relationship for purpose of analysis as a simple dyad. Thus in order to understand the processes of power we should look at dyads with respect to resource X. Power in the large social systems is then made up of any number of dyadic relations.

### Other Attributes of Power

Several dimensions or characteristics of power may be distinguished. Kaplan describes three such attributes--the weight, scope, and domain of power.<sup>15</sup>

An agent A may influence B only slightly or enormously; A may have virtually complete control of B's behavior. This specification of how much influence A has over B is weight intensity, or degree of power. When the weight of power is maximal or nearly so, it is not power or influence, but control.

One individual can exercise a considerable degree of power over a certain individual with respect to one kind of behavior. This attribute is termed the scope or range of power. For example, a foreman may be able to influence a worker's behavior on the job and yet be powerless when it comes to his political activities.

Finally, we can speak of the domain of power, which refers to

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<sup>15</sup> A. Kaplan, "Power In Perspective," in Power and Conflict in Organizations, ed. R. Kahn and E. Boulding (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1964), p. 13.

the extension or range of persons influenced. The domain of A's power refers to the set of agents over whom A has power with respect to a specific range.

These terms, in particular the range and domain of power, will be useful in the following discussion of the bases of power.

### Bases of Power

The major theoretical framework for this study is the work of French and Raven regarding the basis of power.<sup>16</sup> They define the basis of power as "The relationship between O (A) and P (B) which is the source of that power."<sup>17</sup>

The relationship between persons is typically characterized by several qualitatively different power bases; the principal-teacher relationship can illustrate this idea. A principal may request that a teacher change his behavior or goals with respect to his teaching duties. The teacher may comply because of one or a combination of the following reasons: (a) as a supervisor, the principal has authority to request a change, (b) the teacher recognizes the principal's special knowledge and skills which prompted the request for a change, or (c) the teacher likes the principal and desires to maintain a favorable relationship with him.

Although many power bases exist, French and Raven have distinguished the following five as important and common to many types of

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<sup>16</sup>J. R. P. French and B. Raven, "The Bases of Social Power," in Group Dynamics: Research and Theory, ed. D. Cartwright and A. Zander (New York: Harper and Row, 1968), pp. 259-269.

<sup>17</sup>Ibid., p. 262.



interpersonal relationships: reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert.<sup>18</sup> The ensuing discussion is based on French and Raven's concept of the bases of power:

1. Reward Power is defined as power whose basis is the ability to reward. It is founded on B's perception that A can mediate rewards for him. The strength of reward power increases with the magnitude of the rewards which B perceives that A can mediate for him and also depends on the probability that A can mediate the reward. Rewards need to be acceptable to B or to be desired by him and may be in the form of money, recognition, special favors, favorable work assignments and so on. The range of reward power is specific to those regions within which A can reward B for conforming. The use of promised rewards, illegitimate rewards, or reward not repeated over a span of time tend to decrease the effectiveness of reward power; the use of actual rewards, repeated over a period of time, will increase the effectiveness of this power base. Repeated effective use of rewards tends to increase the attraction of B toward A and leads to a referent power base.

2. Coercive Power is similar to reward power but is founded on B's perception that A can mediate punishments for him. The strength of coercive power depends upon a situational advantage of A over B, and relies totally upon the maintenance of this advantage. Because such advantages are usually temporary, coercive power is usually effective only in the short run. In fact, continued use of this power base tends to decrease its effectiveness and tends to decrease the attraction of A toward B.

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<sup>18</sup> Ibid., pp. 262-268.

3. Legitimate Power is based on the perception by B that A has a legitimate right to prescribe behavior for him. Legitimate power is related to Weber's idea of the legitimacy of authority.<sup>19</sup> This concept of legitimacy stems from some sort of code, standard, or values, accepted by B, by virtue of which A can assert his power. French and Raven define at least three sources of legitimacy: (a) cultural values, for example, age, intelligence, caste; (b) acceptance of the social structure--a judge has a right to levy fines; and (c) designation by a legitimizing agent.<sup>20</sup> An election is perhaps the most common illustration of a group's serving to legitimize the authority of one individual or office for other individuals in the group. While some sources of legitimacy carry with them a very wide range, most often the range of legitimate power is specific and prescribed. The use of power which is not legitimate will decrease the attractiveness of A.

4. Referent Power is based on B's identification with A. According to French and Raven, this identification is a "feeling of oneness of P (B) with O (A), or a desire for such identity. If O (A) is a person toward whom P (B) is highly attracted, P (B) will have a desire to become closely associated with O (A)".<sup>21</sup> Thus, the source of this power may arise from friendship, identification with a successful model, or feelings of a shared identity. The greater the attraction, the greater the identification, and consequently the greater the referent power. In some instances, the attraction may have a specific basis and

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<sup>19</sup>Butler, p. 83.

<sup>20</sup>French and Raven, p. 264.

<sup>21</sup>Ibid., p. 266.

therefore the range of referent power will be limited; in general, the greater the attraction of B toward A, the broader the range of referent power.

5. Expert Power is based on the perception that A has some special knowledge or expertness. B may have many reasons for attributing expertness to A--A's experience, training, intelligence, reputation for credibility, or special access to relevant information. Wherever expert power occurs, it seems necessary that B both think that A knows and trust that A is telling the truth. The range of expert power seems to be limited; it is restricted to cognitive systems, and the expert is viewed as having superior knowledge or skill in very specific areas and his power will be limited to these areas.

#### Comparison to Other Bases

Others have identified sources of power which are similar to and can be compared to the five bases of power described above. The subsequent comparisons are made in order to arrive at a thorough understanding of the bases of power which form a major theoretical framework of this study.

Russell states that an individual may have power over another as a result of being able to influence him by direct physical power over his body (coercive power), by rewards and punishment (reward and coercive power), and by influence of opinion (expert power).<sup>22</sup>

In his study on the sources of power of lower participants in

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<sup>22</sup>B. Russell, Power: A New Social Analysis (London: Allen and Unwin, 1938), p. 73.

complex organizations, Mechanic<sup>23</sup> describes several factors affecting power which can be compared to French and Raven's power bases:

The expert maintains power because high-ranking persons in the organization are dependent upon him for his special skills and access to certain kinds of information.<sup>24</sup> (expert power)

Another personal attribute associated with the power of low ranking persons in an organization is attractiveness or what some call "personality."<sup>25</sup> (referent power)

Effort and interest . . . secretarial staffs often have the power to make decisions about the purchase and allocation of supplies, the allocation of their services, the scheduling of classes . . .<sup>26</sup> (reward and coercive power)

Clark in his work on community power, lists an inventory of resources.<sup>27</sup> For each of Clark's resources, the corresponding French and Raven power base is given:

<u>Type of Resource</u> (Clark)	<u>Related Power Base</u> (French and Raven)
1. Money and credit	reward
2. Control over jobs	reward, coercive
3. Control over mass media	expert, referent
4. Social status	legitimate
5. Knowledge and skills	expert
6. Popularity and esteemed personal qualities	referent
7. Legality	legitimate
8. Sub-system solidarity	referent
9. The right to vote	legitimate
10. Social access to community leaders	referent
11. Commitments of followers	referent
12. Manpower and control of organization	reward, coercive
13. Control over interpretation of values	referent

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<sup>23</sup>D. Mechanic, "Sources of Power of Lower Participants in Complex Organizations," Administrative Science Quarterly, VII (1962), pp. 349-364.

<sup>24</sup>Ibid., p. 357.

<sup>25</sup>Ibid., p. 360.

<sup>26</sup>Ibid., p. 359.

<sup>27</sup>Clark, pp. 57-58.

Finally, Etzioni<sup>28</sup> also provides a typology of power which can be compared to the French and Raven power bases. In this case, each type of power is related to a specific type of organizational commitment; thus, coercive power leads to alienative commitment, utilitarian power to calculative commitment, and normative to moral commitment. Etzioni's coercive power is similar to French and Raven's coercive power base: utilitarian, to reward; and normative, to referent power bases.

### Summary

Power has been defined as the potentiality for inducing forces in other persons toward acting or changing in the direction intended by the influencer. In addition, five bases of power, as defined by French and Raven, have been identified and described. These five bases answer the question--how is one individual influenced by another?

In the next section, the second variable of this study--job satisfaction--is examined. Several theories and studies of job satisfaction are reviewed. A number of studies which have examined the relationship of the bases of power and job satisfaction are also discussed.

### Job Satisfaction

The concept of job satisfaction is complex and multifaceted. Since Hoppock's monograph on Job Satisfaction in 1935,<sup>29</sup> a substantial amount of research has been conducted on this topic. Variables such as job satisfaction, employee attitudes, and morale have acquired an important place in the literature of organization, industrial and social

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<sup>28</sup>A. Etzioni, p. 10.

<sup>29</sup>R. Hoppock, Job Satisfaction (New York: Harper and Row, 1935).

psychology, and educational administration.

According to Deci, "in the last forty years . . . there have been hundreds of studies which have considered some aspect of job satisfaction."<sup>30</sup> Carroll lists a bibliography of over thirty pages of studies since 1960 in which researchers have examined correlations between job satisfaction and variables related to company policy and individual characteristics.<sup>31</sup> These studies include correlations between job satisfaction and such demographic characteristics as marital status and tenure; firm-related variables as organizational size, salary, and organizational structure; and individual-related variables as identification with management and job involvement, job level, and psychological challenge and use of skills.<sup>32</sup>

Because the literature on job satisfaction is so voluminous, no attempt will be made to review all of it. Rather, several theories and studies which are relevant to this study will be discussed.

Job satisfaction is conceptualized as a function of an individual's needs and expectations in relation to specific and identifiable factors in the work environment, e.g., working conditions, financial incentives, informal relations that develop between individuals, and leadership within the organization. This approach to job satisfaction was developed out of classical "needs psychology." In needs psychology,

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<sup>30</sup>E. Deci, "Job Attitudes and Job Satisfaction" in Industrial and Organizational Psychology, ed. B. Von Gilmer and E. Deci (McGraw-Hill, 1977), p. 234.

<sup>31</sup>B. Carroll, Job Satisfaction, A Review of the Literature (Ithaca, New York: New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University, 1973), pp. 21-54.

<sup>32</sup>*Ibid.*, pp. 9-20.

a person's needs are viewed as giving rise to his goal-directed behavior which aims at satisfaction of these needs.

Perhaps the most significant theory in this approach to job satisfaction is the "need hierarchy" of A. H. Maslow.<sup>33</sup> Maslow's theory is based on the idea that an individual's needs develop in a sequence from "lower order" to "higher order" needs. The hierarchy he proposed consisted of five plateaus:

1. Basic physiological needs--the desire of an individual for bodily comfort. This includes needs for oxygen, food, etc.
2. Safety and security needs--the desire for safety and security felt by a person who experiences danger and uncertainty.
3. Social affection needs--love and interpersonal-relating needs; an individual desires to both give and receive love and attention.
4. Esteem needs--divided into two categories: first, a person desires high self-respect or self-esteem; second, he needs recognition, attention, and appreciation from others in order to have prestige and a reputation.
5. Self-actualization needs--the desire of an individual to use his potential in order to reach self-fulfillment. Each person has a need to become everything that he is capable of becoming.

According to Maslow's theory, an individual is never without a need of some type, and the appearance of any particular need occurs upon the satisfaction of the one which immediately precedes it on the hierarchy. For example, when the physiological needs are no longer felt by a person, the need for safety and security emerges to occupy his attention. After these needs are fulfilled, the remaining three--love, esteem, and self-actualization--become important in that order to the individual. When a particular need is fulfilled in whole or in part, it tends to

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<sup>33</sup>A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper and Row, 1954), pp. 80-106.

fade into the background as a motivator of human behavior. As it becomes of less importance to the individual, it is replaced wholly or partially by the next category of basic needs on the hierarchy.<sup>34</sup>

Getzel's and Guba's nomothetic and idiographic dimensions of activity in a social system provide additional insight into the concept of job satisfaction. They view job satisfaction broadly as a balance between the role expectations of the institution and the personality dispositions of the individual.<sup>35</sup> Satisfaction is regarded as a function of the degree of correspondence between the demands of the institution and the needs of the individual. When the individual does what his role calls for and when this behavior simultaneously gratifies his needs, then the individual is said to be satisfied. When expectations and needs do not correspond, dissatisfaction occurs.

Similarly, Morse developed four indices of job satisfaction: (1) job content, (2) identification with the company, (3) financial and job status satisfaction, and (4) pride and group performance.<sup>36</sup> Based on her study, Morse hypothesized that level of satisfaction is a combination of both level of aspiration and need-tension versus the amount of return from the environment. Satisfaction depends basically on what an individual wants and expects from his work and actually what he gets. The individual is satisfied when the two are in line; when the return from the environment is much less than the need and aspiration levels of

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<sup>34</sup>Ibid.

<sup>35</sup>J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," The School Review LXV (Winter, 1957), pp. 433-435.

<sup>36</sup>Nancy Morse, Satisfaction in the White Collar Job (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1953).



the individual, job dissatisfaction occurs.

Barnes has modified Maslow's need theory and has linked it to the concept of an organizational system.<sup>37</sup> Whereas Maslow arranged needs on a hierarchical order from low (physiological) to high (self-actualization), Barnes questions the hierarchical concept and believes there are difficulties in operationalizing a concept like self-actualization. Barnes envisions a more equal but related arrangement of man's higher need categories. Consequently, he ignores self-actualization and views man's safety needs as overlapping his other higher needs. Barnes' modification leaves a base of physiological needs and a higher level consisting of self-esteem, esteem of others, and belonging, in mutual relationship to each other. These needs are regarded as inter-dependent not as hierarchically dependent upon the satisfaction of lower level needs. According to Barnes, whenever the safety of one of these needs is threatened, all are threatened.

Barnes then clarifies the relationship between these needs and the dimensions of an organizational system:

An organizational system helps or hinders an individual to meet his self-esteem needs by the extent of autonomy and freedom it provides on the job. It affects other-esteem by the ways in which influence relationships are structured. It helps to satisfy or to frustrate his belonging needs according to the opportunities for interaction provided beyond those required by the job.<sup>38</sup>

Finally, two studies related to education were sufficiently important in guiding this research to be recounted here. In a sample of nearly 1,800 teachers working in over 200 schools systems in 43 states,

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<sup>37</sup>L. Barnes, Organizational Systems and Engineering Groups (Boston: Harvard University Press, 1960), pp. 167-169.

<sup>38</sup>Ibid., p. 168.

Chase related job satisfaction to personal characteristics of teachers and to administrative policies and practices.<sup>39</sup> Employing questionnaires and interview procedures, he found that:

1. Freedom to plan one's own work was given the highest possible rating by more than three fourths of all respondents as a potential source of job satisfaction.
2. The desire for professional status implied above was further exemplified in teacher collegial relationships. In interviews, respondents repeatedly spoke of the satisfaction arising from working with teachers who had professional attitudes and high work standards.
3. Enthusiasm for the system is related to the extent of participation teachers are afforded in curriculum building and policy making. Again and again teachers who were enthusiastic about the system in which they were working praised their freedom to experiment, to adapt programs to the needs of pupils; or cited as important to satisfaction the fact that they were regarded as competent to make their own decisions and to work out their own procedures.<sup>40</sup>

A questionnaire study by Sharma indicated that decision-making practices are important determinants of teacher job satisfaction.<sup>41</sup> He found that teachers have clear conceptions and definite expectations about which level of the organization should appropriately be involved in a wide variety of decisions. Satisfaction seems to be related to the extent to which decision-making in the school organization meets the teacher's expectations. Satisfied teachers reported that they were able to influence decisions in those areas in which they desired to do so; dissatisfied teachers reported that they could not participate in decision-making areas where participation was desired.

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<sup>39</sup>F. S. Chase, "Factors for Satisfaction in Teaching," Phi Delta Kappan, XXXIII (November, 1951), p. 130.

<sup>40</sup>Ibid., p. 130.

<sup>41</sup>C. L. Sharma, "Who Should Make What Decision?" Administrator's Notebook (Midwest Administration Center), III (1955), pp. 1-4.

### Bases of Power and Job Satisfaction

The present study investigates secondary school subordinate administrators' perceptions of the bases of power of their principals and its relationship to their job satisfaction. A limited number of studies have examined the relationship between the French and Raven bases of power and job satisfaction. Much of the original work in this area was completed at the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center. Only a few studies have investigated this relationship in an educational setting. None has investigated this relationship among school administrators.

Bachman, Smith, and Slesinger examined the bases of power and its association with performance, satisfaction, and total amount of control in 36 branch offices of a national firm selling intangibles.<sup>42</sup> They examined these variables in the office manager-salesmen relationship.

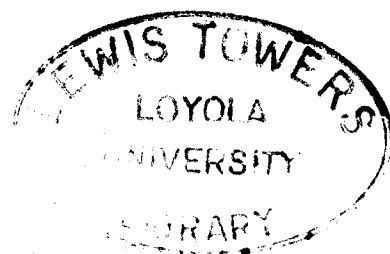
They concluded that total control, performance, and satisfaction with the office manager were all relatively high for the office manager whose leadership was perceived resting largely upon his skill and expertise (expert power) and upon his personal attractiveness (referent power). Conversely, the less effective office manager was one who appeared to rely more heavily upon the use of rewards and sanctions (reward and coercive power) and upon the formal authority of his position (legitimate power).<sup>43</sup>

In a study of twelve liberal arts colleges, Bachman

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<sup>42</sup>Bachman, Smith, Slesinger, pp. 213-227.

<sup>43</sup>Ibid., p. 225.



investigated the relationship of the basis of power of the dean and faculty morale.<sup>44</sup> Based on responses from 655 faculty members, he reported the following:

Faculty . . . indicated greatest satisfaction with deans who have relatively high influence over college affairs, and whose influence is based upon expertise and respect rather than upon legitimate authority or coercion.<sup>45</sup>

Bachman, Bowers, and Marcus summarized the findings from five studies examining the relationship of the bases of power to organizational performance and member job satisfaction.<sup>46</sup> Data were obtained from 2,840 respondents in 148 different organizational units. Five organizational settings were studied, (including the two noted above): salesmen in branch offices, faculty in liberal arts colleges, agents in life insurance agencies, production workers in an appliance firm, and workers in a utility company. They reported that expert and referent power provided the strongest and most consistently positive correlations with job satisfaction; coercive power provided the most consistently negative correlations. The pattern for legitimate and reward power was less clear: With respect to the data for salesmen and college faculty, correlations with job satisfaction were negative. For insurance agents and production workers, the correlations were predominantly positive.

Ivancevich also studied the relationship between the bases of

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<sup>44</sup>J. Bachman, "Faculty Satisfaction and the Dean's Influence: An Organizational Study of Twelve Liberal Arts Colleges," Journal of Applied Psychology, LII (February, 1968), pp. 55-61.

<sup>45</sup>Ibid., p. 55.

<sup>46</sup>Bachman, Bowers, and Marcus, pp. 229-238.

power and job satisfaction.<sup>47</sup> However, he expanded on the previously noted studies by relating the bases of power to three Maslow influenced satisfaction categories: status satisfaction, autonomy satisfaction, and growth satisfaction. A total of 228 employees of a large insurance company participated in the study. As in previous studies, legitimate power ranked first among the reasons for complying with the agency manager's directives. However, legitimate power related positively only to the autonomy satisfaction category. Referent and expert power related positively to each of the three satisfaction measures.

Hornstein et al replicated the past work of Bachman, Smith, and Slesinger in a study of elementary school teachers' perceptions of the bases of power of their principal and its relationship to the teachers' evaluation of the school system, their satisfaction with their principal, and their perceptions of student satisfaction with the way they are performing as teachers.<sup>48</sup> Data regarding these variables were collected from 325 elementary school teachers who worked in 14 different school buildings in each of two participating school systems. The results from this study were similar to that reached in the various industrial and sales studies: Referent and expert power correlated positively with job satisfaction, while legitimate, reward, and coercive power correlated negatively with job satisfaction. As Hornstein et al summarize:

Teachers report greatest satisfaction with their principals and school system when they perceive that they and their principals are mutually influential, especially when the principal's power

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<sup>47</sup>J. Ivancevich, "An Analysis of Control, Bases of Control, and Satisfaction in an Organizational Setting," Academy of Management Journal, XIII (December, 1970), pp. 427-436.

<sup>48</sup>Hornstein, pp. 380-389.

to influence emanates from their perceiving him as an expert. Moreover, this same principal-teacher relationship is associated with a perception of higher student satisfaction.<sup>49</sup>

Finally, in a doctoral dissertation, Miller also investigated the relationship between the bases of power and job satisfaction in the elementary school setting.<sup>50</sup> Miller based his conclusions from data obtained from the observations of elementary teachers, in 17 elementary schools located in central New York state, regarding the bases of power used by their principals. His conclusions were similar to previous studies:

1. There was a positive relationship between job satisfaction and expert power. "Teachers placed the highest significant value on their principal's use of expert power as a facilitator of all aspects of their job satisfaction."<sup>51</sup>
2. There was a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the principal's use of referent power. "High job satisfaction occurs when teachers perceive their principals to use referent power as a base of social influence."<sup>52</sup>
3. There was a negative relationship between job satisfaction and coercive power. "As teachers perceive their principals using coercive power as a mode of influence, this tended to have an adverse effect on their job satisfaction."<sup>53</sup>
4. There is no significant relationship between job satisfaction and reward power. "Reward power may function as a moderative or facilitative variable in terms of its effect on job satisfaction."<sup>54</sup>

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<sup>49</sup>Ibid., p. 380.

<sup>50</sup>Miller, pp. 1-147.

<sup>51</sup>Ibid., p. 116.

<sup>52</sup>Ibid., p. 115.

<sup>53</sup>Ibid., p. 117.

<sup>54</sup>Ibid., p. 120.

5. There was a positive relationship between job satisfaction and legitimate power. "Teachers do ascribe a positive value to the use of legitimate power by their principals, even though remaining bases of social influence are more important determiners of job satisfaction."<sup>55</sup>

### Application to Present Study

In an article entitled "Today's Principalship: New Dimensions/New Demands," Robert Moser describes some of the demands upon the principalship in the 70's:

The fundamental responsibilities of the principalship are undergoing significant new demands in the '70's--demands challenging the principal to be a planner of futures, an allocator of resources, a stimulator of improvement, a coordinator of concerted effort, and an evaluator of process and product.<sup>56</sup>

Moser also believes that the dimensions of the job or the processes engaged in by the principal as he carries out his work have not changed, only the kinds of behavior expected of the principal have changed.

Attempting to determine important issues and problems in school administration, Goldhammer interviewed principals in each of the states of the continental United States; he reported that:

The area identified by principals as the largest source of problems involved difficulty in establishing and maintaining successful and human relations. . . . Principals also felt that they did not have an adequate knowledge of strategies to employ in order to effect educational change in the schools for which they were responsible.<sup>57</sup>

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<sup>55</sup>Ibid., p. 122.

<sup>56</sup>R. Moser, "Today's Principalship: New Dimensions/New Demands," North Central Association Quarterly XLIX, 2 (Fall, 1974), p. 295.

<sup>57</sup>P. Jacobson, J. Logsdon, and R. Wiegman, The Principalship: New Perspectives (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973), p. 20.

Halpin, Blake and Mouton, and in particular Getzels<sup>58</sup> suggest that there are two major dimensions of leadership in any institution--concern and consideration for people, and concern for meeting the goals of the institution. Thus, the school principal, charged with the responsibility for moving his particular school continually toward the fulfillment of its goals, employs a certain style of leadership. He may emphasize the nomothetic style by insisting that teachers behave strictly in accord with the rules, policies, and expectations of the school system. On the other hand, he may stress the idiographic style by assisting teachers to meet their personal needs during the performance of their duties. Both styles of leadership are oriented toward the attainment of the goals of the school--the former through a firm requirement that teachers behave in a manner specified by the organization, and the latter through a means which permits each teacher to make a total contribution that is most relevant to him.

Since each unique problem dictates the type of behavior needed for its solution, the principal must be flexible and able to vary his leadership behavior on a continuum between strictly nomothetic and entirely idiographic.

Getzel's and Guba's nomothetic and idiographic dimensions of leadership may be compared to the five-fold typology of the bases of power defined by French and Raven. The areas in which reward power,

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<sup>58</sup>A. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: Macmillan, 1966); R. Blake and J. Mouton, The Managerial Grid (Houston: Gulf Publishing Co., 1964); and J. Getzels, J. Lipham, and R. Campbell, Educational Administration As A Social Process (New York: Harper and Row, 1968).



coercive power, and legitimate power may be exercised are largely specified by the organization; on the other hand, areas in which the principal can exercise referent power and expert power are to a substantial degree uniquely determined by his own behavior and his interactions with his subordinates. Expert power is personally determined, but the amount of information available may vary as a part of the organizational structure. The extent and range of a principal's referent power and expert power cannot be specified by the organization. Expert power and referent power are idiosyncratic in character. On the other hand, reward power, coercive power and legitimate power are nomothetic in character and result from the principal's occupancy of a position in the school's role system. The formal organizational structure of schools provides equal legitimate power to all principals and gives them equal access to the use of organizational rewards and punishments. However, principals are not equal in their referent power or their expert power; a principal's referent power and his expert power constitute his particular utilization of his formal position.

Thus, a principal must possess a theory base which will permit him to help each subordinate make a total contribution that is both goal oriented and personally satisfying. As indicated in previous sections of this chapter, job satisfaction is a complex and multifaceted organizational variable which has been viewed as a function of the relationship between individual needs and reinforcer factors in the work environment. The research, described above, though limited, has consistently shown that employee job satisfaction may be viewed as a function of the bases of power used by a supervisor. The purpose of

this research is to broaden the base of information regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and the basis of power.

## CHAPTER III

### THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

In the preceding chapter, the literature and research which were examined and reviewed related to the concept of power, the bases of power, job satisfaction, and the relationship between the bases of power and job satisfaction. This chapter of the investigation discusses and describes the following: 1) the composition of the study group population, 2) the Bases of Power Scale, 3) the School Survey, 4) the administration and scoring of these two instruments, 5) the interview schedule, and 6) the statistical treatment.

This study was conducted within north and northwestern Cook and Lake Counties, Illinois, with subordinate administrators of secondary schools. Subordinate administrators are those administrators who report directly to a building principal, namely, assistant principals, directors of guidance, deans, department chairmen, division heads, and so on. The eight school districts involved in the study ranged in size from 4,187 to 18,811 students. The twenty-eight high schools ranged in student enrollment from a low of 1,532 to a high of 3,314, with most of the schools falling in the 2,000 to 2,500 range. The number of subordinate administrators in each district varied from eight to eighty-three. A listing of the study population districts is provided in Appendix A.

The concern and major emphasis of this study is to identify the

subordinate administrators' perceptions of the bases of power of their principals and its relationship to their job satisfaction. To further enhance the identification effort, a brief view of the basic data on the subordinate administrators was also compiled for inclusion in this study.

### A Study Group Population

A questionnaire was used in this study to gather the perceptions of subordinate administrators regarding the bases of power of their principals and its relationship to their job satisfaction. Out of the three hundred and fifty-one (351) subordinate administrators surveyed, three hundred and twenty-four (324) responded, representing a 92.3% response to the survey. In addition, a portion of the questionnaire was formulated for use in an attempt to compile a fundamental composite picture of the subordinate administrators as to their age, training, administrative experience, and other related items.

The ages of the subordinate administrators range from under 26 years of age to more than 55 years of age, with most of the ages falling in the 46 to 55 years of age category (38%) and the 36 to 45 years of age category (35.8%). Of the three hundred and twenty-four respondents, fifty-six (17.3%) were female. (See Table 1).

Academic training experienced by the subordinate administrators was also compiled in the summary. The data revealed that all but two of the subordinate administrators had received both a bachelor's and a master's degree. Furthermore, 20.1% of the subordinate administrators had obtained an advanced certificate, and 7.7% had received a doctor's degree. This cumulative data indicated a very professionally trained.

sampled population. (See Table 2).

Table 1

AGES OF SUBORDINATE ADMINISTRATORS

	Number	Percentage
Under 26	1	.3
26-35	49	15.1
36-45	116	35.8
46-55	123	38.0
Over 55	33	10.2
No response	2	.6
	324	100.0%

Table 2

LEVELS OF EDUCATION OF SUBORDINATE ADMINISTRATORS

	Number	Percentage
B.A.	2	.6
M.A.	222	68.5
Advanced Certificate	65	20.1
Doctor	25	7.7
No response	10	3.1
	324	100.0%

Another area of the investigation was an attempt to gather data on the subordinate administrators regarding their current administrative job titles and their educational experiences, in particular, their educational administrative experience. Table 3 provides a summary of the types and numbers of the subordinate administrators. The majority of the subordinate administrators were department chairmen (44.4%). Forty-one (41%) of the subordinate administrators indicated that they had been in their current administrative position ten or more years. (See Table 4). Over half of the subordinate administrators (51.5%) have ten or more years of administrative experience. (See Table 5). Finally, over sixty percent (69.8%) of the subordinate administrators have

sixteen or more years in the field of education. (See Table 6).

This cumulative data indicated a highly experienced study population both in years of experience in administration and in the field of education.

The final aspect studied was the salary range of the subordinate administrators. No subordinate administrator made less than \$15,000 or more than \$40,000. The majority (76.3%) of the salaries ranged in the \$25,000 to \$34,999 category. The data obtained indicated a well compensated group of administrators. (See Table 7).

Table 3

PRESENT ADMINISTRATIVE POSITION OF SUBORDINATE ADMINISTRATORS

	Number	Percentage
Associate/Assistant Principal	54	16.7
Director of Guidance	17	5.2
Department Chairperson	144	44.4
Division Head	50	15.4
Dean	30	9.3
Administrative Assistant	7	2.2
Building Manager	2	.6
Instructional Supervisor	10	3.1
Director of Student Activities	6	1.9
Other	4	1.2
	324	100.0%

Table 4

TOTAL YEARS IN PRESENT ADMINISTRATIVE  
POSITION OF SUBORDINATE ADMINISTRATORS

	Number	Percentage
More than 14	70	21.6
10-13	63	19.4
6-9	112	34.6
2-5	67	20.7
1 or less	12	3.7
	324	100.0%

Table 5

TOTAL PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATIVE  
EXPERIENCE OF SUBORDINATE ADMINISTRATORS

	Number	Percentage
More than 14	96	29.6
10-13	71	21.9
6-9	96	29.6
2-5	51	15.7
1 or less	9	2.8
No response	1	.3
	324	100.0%

Table 6

TOTAL YEARS IN EDUCATION OF SUBORDINATE ADMINISTRATORS

	Number	Percentage
More than 25	80	24.7
21-25	74	22.8
16-20	72	22.2
11-15	75	23.1
6-10	22	6.8
1-5	1	.3
	324	100.0%

Table 7

ANNUAL SALARIES OF SUBORDINATE ADMINISTRATORS

	Number	Percentage
\$15,000-\$19,999	6	1.9
\$20,000-\$24,999	53	16.4
\$25,000-\$29,999	145	44.8
\$30,000-\$34,999	102	31.5
\$35,000-\$39,999	17	5.2
No response	1	.3
	324	100.0%

Bases of Power Scale

According to Price,<sup>1</sup> most of the empirical work concerning the bases of power stems from the work of French and Raven, whose major

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<sup>1</sup>James L. Price, Handbook of Organizational Measurement (D. C. Heath, 1972), p. 145.

intellectual influence was the work of Kurt Lewin.<sup>2</sup> Max Weber's ideas about the bases of power, which are widely cited by organizational researchers, have not stimulated measurement research comparable in quality to the work of French and Raven.<sup>3</sup>

The previously cited work in education of Miller and Hornstein<sup>4</sup> employed a measure designed by Bachman.<sup>5</sup> A questionnaire item which listed five reasons for complying with the request of a superior was used. These five reasons corresponded to the five bases of power as defined by French and Raven. Those studies contain no data relevant to reliability. The Power Scale used in this study (See Appendix B) is viewed as an improvement over the Bachman measure. It has been adopted from a study by Butler whose power scale provided a fairly high Kuder-Richardson 21 corrected reliability figure of .387.<sup>6</sup>

The French and Raven typology distinguishes five bases of power: reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert.

Reward Power is viewed as the ability to provide financial

<sup>2</sup>Kurt Lewin, Field Theory in Social Science (New York; 1951).

<sup>3</sup>Price, p. 145.

<sup>4</sup>Don E. Miller, "A Study of Relationships Between Job Satisfaction of Teachers and Their Perceptions of the Bases of Social Influence of Their Principals" (Doctoral Dissertation, Syracuse University, 1973) and Harvey Hornstein, "Influence and Satisfaction in Organizations: A Replication," Sociology of Education, XLI, 4 (Fall, 1968), pp. 380-389.

<sup>5</sup>J. G. Bachman, C. G. Smith, and J. A. Slesinger, "Control, Performance, and Satisfaction: An Analysis of Structural and Individual Effects," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, IV (1969), pp. 127-136.

<sup>6</sup>R. Butler, "Power, Technology, Inter Role Relation and Role Characteristics: A Study of User Support Function Relations in NASA" (Doctoral Dissertation, Northwestern University, 1973), p. 187.



benefits (Questionnaire items 8 and 35), fringe benefits (item 10), professional support or recognition (items 21, 25, 28, and 34), or promotion (item 18).

8. He can cause a direct increase in my salary, budget, or other financial factors.
10. He can provide important "fringe" benefits for me.
18. He can open other job opportunities for me.
21. He can assist in my gaining professional or job recognition or reputation.
25. He can promote my qualities to the Board.
28. He can cause especially interesting or valuable work to be given to me.
34. He can enhance my image in the community.
35. He has a large say in the granting/reviewing of my contract.

Coercive Power is the ability to remove rewards, namely, to remove financial rewards (items 26 and 38), fringe benefits (item 33), or professional rewards (items 2 and 5). Coercive power may also be viewed as the ability to apply special sanctions or punishments (items 12, 14, and 37).

2. He can cause work that is especially important or interesting to me to be taken away.
5. He can harm my professional reputation in some way.
12. He can take disciplinary action against me.
14. He can generally make life difficult for me.
26. He has a large say in the removal of my contract.
33. He can remove important "fringe" benefits for me.
37. He can dismiss me.
38. He has a direct say in the removal of financial benefits to me.

Legitimate Power is the ability to use formal position or rules to influence (items 11, 13, 15, 16, 20, 23, 27, and 31).

11. He is responsible for implementing all policies established by the Board.
13. He has a legitimate right, because of his position, to expect that his suggestions/requests will be followed.
15. He is the Principal.
16. He is supported by the existence of organizational rules and regulations.
20. He is the chief executive officer of the school.
23. He has the authority to make final decisions.
27. He is a line officer; I report directly to him.
31. He is responsible for supervising my work.

Referent Power is based on B's identification with A and may cover friendship (items 3, 6, 19, 29, 32, and 40), the identification with a successful model (item 1), or a feeling of a shared identity (item 17).

1. I want to model myself after him because he is a successful administrator.
3. I want to be loyal to him.
6. He can appeal to our friendship.
17. We have a common set of professional values.
19. He is my friend.
29. I want to gain his respect and admiration.
32. I want him to like me.
40. I admire him.

Expert Power is based upon the possession of important information (item 24), or upon identification as a special expert (items 7, 9,

22, 36, and 39) or the use of logical argument and sound judgement (items 4 and 30).

- 4. He utilizes logical argument and sound reasoning.
- 7. He is one of the most skillful administrators I know.
- 9. He has the ability to recognize the various "side effects" or consequences of his decisions.
- 22. He is an experienced administrator.
- 24. He is a wealth of important information to me.
- 30. He is competent and uses sound judgement.
- 36. He is a good decision maker.
- 39. He is more knowledgeable and experienced than I.

The use of these questionnaire items points out a problem with the French and Raven theory; it may be possible to view the items as belonging to more than one type of power base. French and Raven also point out this difficulty:

At times, there is some difficulty in distinguishing between reward power and coercive power. Is the withholding of a reward really equivalent to a reward? Is the withdrawal of punishment equivalent to a reward? The answer must be a psychological one--It depends upon the situation as it exists for P. But ordinarily we would answer these questions in the affirmative; for P, receiving a reward is a positive valence as is the relief of suffering.

. . . .

We must try to distinguish between referent power and other types of power which might be operative at the same time. If a member is attracted to a group and he conforms to its norms only because he fears ridicule or expulsion from the group for non-conformity, we would call this coercive power. On the other hand if he conforms in order to obtain praise for conformity, it is a case of reward power. The basic criterion for distinguishing referent power from both coercive and reward power is the mediation of the punishment and the reward by O: to the extent that O mediates the sanctions (i.e., has means control over P) we are dealing

with coercive and reward power: but to the extent that P avoids discomfort or gains satisfaction by conformity based on identification, regardless of O's responses, we are dealing with referent power.<sup>7</sup>

Thus the difficulty resides in the fact that the bases of power are not necessarily independent. In reality, it is rare that a given case of power is limited to one source. Normally, the relationship between two agents, A and B, will be characterized by several different variables. However, rather than dismiss this problem as a limitation of the study, a measure of criteria related validity as rated by expert judgement has been provided through a technique known as "Q Sort". The panel of experts consisted of subordinate administrators, principals, central office administrators, and university professors.<sup>8</sup> The procedures employed in the Q Sort are relatively simple. A written definition of each of the bases of power was provided. Each question from the Power Scale was typed on a 3x5 card. After reading each statement, each expert was asked to classify the statement into one of the bases of power. Items that were rated into a specific category by 80% or more of the experts were considered to be measuring what they purported to measure and thus were considered valid. Items rated at less than the 80% level were

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<sup>7</sup>J. French and B. Raven, "The Bases of Social Power," in Group Dynamics: Research and Theory, ed. D. Cartwright and A. Zander (New York: Harper and Row, 1968), p. 266.

<sup>8</sup>The panel of experts included the following: Mr. Robert Barker, Assistant Principal - Maine South; Mr. John Graef, Assistant Principal - Maine West; Mr. James Rickabaugh, Dean - Maine North; Mr. Sherman Roth, Director of Guidance - Maine North; Mr. A. K. H. Cochrane, Principal - Maine North; Dr. John Benka, Assistant Superintendent - Administration, District 207; Dr. Michael Meyers, Assistant Superintendent - Curriculum, District 207; Dr. Max Bailey, Associate Professor - School of Education, Loyola; and Dr. Robert Monks, Assistant Professor - School of Education, Loyola.

discarded as not being valid. These items, five in all, which purported to measure referent power were re-written and re-submitted to the panel of experts through the Q Sort method. These items have met the stated 80% criteria level. Thus by using the Q Sort technique, the Power Scale has been validated.

### School Survey

Typically, job satisfaction has been measured by means of interviews or questionnaires in which employees are asked to state the degree to which they like or dislike various aspects of their work roles. The degree to which a person is satisfied with his job is inferred from his response to one or more questions about how he feels about his job. Most of the studies described in Chapter II used this method. Each employee was simply asked to respond to the question, "all things considered, how satisfied are you with the way your supervisor is doing his job?" Responses ranged from "very satisfied" to "very dissatisfied." This approach seems hardly satisfactory when one considers that the literature is full of studies which measure an individual's attitude toward a large number of aspects of the work situation, e.g., attitudes toward the company and its management, promotional opportunities, the content of the job, supervision, financial rewards, working conditions, co-workers, and so on.

Unfortunately, according to Vroom, "there has been little standardization of job satisfaction measures. Most investigators 'tailor-make' an instrument for the particular population they are studying."<sup>9</sup>

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<sup>9</sup>V. Vroom, Work and Motivation (New York: Wiley, 1964), p. 100.

While the research in the area of job satisfaction for school administrators is rather sparse, several measures have been used successfully, for example Likert's Profile of Organizational Characteristics, Smith, Kendall, and Hulin's Job Description Index, and Porter's Management Position Questionnaire.<sup>10</sup>

In this study, the School Survey was employed to measure subordinate administrator job satisfaction. Constructed by Coughlan, the School Survey was a 125 item self-reporting work attitudes questionnaire to measure a teacher's perceptions of important factors in his work environment.<sup>11</sup>

According to Coughlan, the School Survey was modeled in concept, design, and procedure after instruments developed by Burns, Baehr, and Baehr and Renck<sup>12</sup> to measure the morale of personnel in industrial organizations. In its original form, the School Survey consisted of 237 items which were derived from a survey of the literature on teacher job satisfaction and morale and from open-ended interviews with teachers in five Chicago suburban high schools as well as the insights and judgements of students and faculty in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago. A pilot form of the School Survey, consisting of 176 items

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<sup>10</sup>Price, p. 158.

<sup>11</sup>Robert Coughlan, "Teacher Work Values, Social Structure, and Job Satisfaction in Relatively Closed and Open School Organizational Systems" (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Chicago, 1968), p. 157.

<sup>12</sup>R. Burns, D. Moore, L. Thurstone, and M. Baehr, The SRA Employee Inventory (Chicago: SRA, Inc., 1952); M. Baehr, "A Factorial Study of the SRA Employee Inventory," Personnel Psychology, VII (Autumn, 1954), pp. 316-336; M. Baehr and R. Renck, "The Definition and Measurement of Employee Morale," Administrative Science Quarterly, III (September, 1958), pp. 157-184.

was then constructed and administered to 258 teachers in two mid-western, medium-sized school systems. An analysis of this pilot administration revealed that nearly 40% of the items failed to meet two statistical criteria: level of response and clarity of response.

The items were re-written and a 125 item form was administered to 192 teachers in four Chicago suburban secondary schools. The data obtained were factor analyzed. While 22 factors were identified, it was determined that 13 of these factors could be readily interpreted. According to Coughlan, "these factors accounted for 32.1% of the total variance. Items with factor loadings of .30 or greater were regarded as making significant contributions to the meaning of the factor."<sup>13</sup> The Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 was employed to obtain coefficients of equivalence for the 13 unit-weight factor scores. The internal consistency reliability estimates range from .44 to .80 with a median of .67.<sup>14</sup>

Because Coughlan's School Survey was originally designed to measure teacher job satisfaction, the School Survey used in this study was further modified to include only those items which related to administrator job satisfaction. This modification was achieved by using the "Q Sort" technique which was previously described.<sup>15</sup>

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<sup>13</sup>Coughlan, p. 165.

<sup>14</sup>Ibid., p. 192.

<sup>15</sup>The panel of experts included the following: Mr. Glenn Hoffman, Social Science Department Chairman, Maine North; Miss Gloria Mazzone, Dean, Maine North; Mr. James Rickabaugh, Dean, Maine North; Mr. Sherman Roth, Director of Pupil Personnel Services, Maine North; and Mr. Robert Simonsen, Assistant Principal, Maine South.

The thirteen factors were designated and defined as follows:

### 1. Board Functioning

This factor consists of the three items shown in Table 8. It reflects the individual's understanding and approval of board policies, perspectives, and relationships. This factor measures his opinion as to whether existing board practices are supportive of an effectively functioning school system.

Table 8

#### BOARD FUNCTIONING

Item No.	Item	FR <sup>16</sup>
9	I have confidence in our school board's ability to do a good job.	A
13	The school board seems to understand the professional character of our work in the schools.	A
26	In general, I approve of school board policies.	A

### 2. System Administration

This factor assesses the individual's evaluation of the effectiveness of the superintendent and is made up of the three items shown in Table 9.

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<sup>16</sup>FR means what is considered to be a favorable response to items, i.e., a positive orientation to the dimensions being measured by the items. "A" indicates "Agree" and "D" indicates "Disagree."



Table 9  
SYSTEM ADMINISTRATION

Item No.	Item	FR
32	The superintendent makes sure his decisions are being carried out.	A
38	The procedures here for dealing with grievances and complaints are fair.	A
40	There seems to be an effective work relationship between the school board and the superintendent.	A

### 3. Work Load

This factor is made up of the three items listed in Table 10 and assesses the individual's opinions about the amount and variety of work he is required to do. It also gives him the opportunity to express his attitude toward the administrative aspects of his job.

Table 10  
WORK LOAD

Item No.	Item	FR
3	My work load is fair and reasonable.	A
17	I am required to do too much administrative paper work.	D
41	I am asked to read too many communications from higher-ups in this school system.	D

#### 4. Materials and Equipment

This factor measures the individual's attitudes toward the quantity, quality, and use of instructional materials, aids, and equipment in the school. It is made up of the three items in Table 11.

Table 11

##### MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT

Item No.	Item	FR
11	I lack the equipment I need to do an effective job.	D
12	The quality of supplementary materials for student use here needs to be considerably improved.	D
35	I have sufficient supplies for my work.	A

#### 5. Buildings and Facilities

This factor assesses the individual's evaluation of physical working conditions within and immediately surrounding the school. It also measures his perception of administrative interest in maintaining and improving facilities and consists of the three items in Table 12.

Table 12

## BUILDINGS AND FACILITIES

Item No.	Item	FR
2	The building and grounds where I work are kept as neat and clean as possible.	A
15	The physical conditions of my work place hamper me in doing a good job.	D
39	A sincere attempt is made to provide us with good physical surroundings.	A

## 6. Supervisory Relations

This factor assesses the individual's appraisal of his immediate supervisor as a work group leader. It focuses on work organization and improvement, communication effectiveness, and supervisory practices dealing with the problems and potential of the individual. This factor is made up of the four items listed in Table 13.

Table 13

## SUPERVISORY RELATIONS

Item No.	Item	FR
8	I am given sufficient opportunity to share in planning the instructional program.	A
16	My immediate supervisor is fair in his dealings with me.	A
18	I am kept well informed about matters affecting my work.	A
30	My immediate supervisor shows initiative in seeking ways to improve our work.	A

## 7. Colleague Relations

The three items listed in Table 14 make up this factor which deals with the individual's perceptions of the friendliness and cooperation among teachers and with the relations between cliques or subgroups in the work group of the school.

Table 14  
COLLEAGUE RELATIONS

Item No.	Item	FR
20	The professional people in this school cooperate well with each other.	A
27	There are many cliques or groups within the professional staff here that create an unfriendly atmosphere.	D
28	The longer you work in this school, the more you feel you belong.	A

## 8. Community Relations

This factor measures the individual's opinions about school-community relations. Included are his perceptions of community and parental influence and interest in school matters. This factor consists of the three items given in Table 15.

Table 15

## COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Item No.	Item	FR
6	The parents of students in this school exert too great an influence in educational matters.	D
14	Little effort seems to be devoted to developing good school-community relationships.	D
31	People in this community seem proud of their school.	A

## 9. Instructional Program

This factor is made up of the items listed in Table 16 and deals with the individual's opinions about the school program's effectiveness in meeting the educational needs of students in the school. Included are his attitudes toward the development and evaluation of school goals, the curriculum, student placement, and student progress.

Table 16

## INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

Item No.	Item	FR
1	The instructional program of this school is appropriate for students in this community.	A
22	Little effort is made here to evaluate the effectiveness of our instructional program.	D
24	Our instructional program effectively integrates the various subject matter areas taught here.	A

## 10. Student Development

This factor reflects the individual's assessment of provisions for student evaluation and development. It focuses on procedures for measuring and reporting student progress, methods for dealing with individual differences, and disciplinary matters. Table 17 lists the three items which make up this factor.

Table 17  
STUDENT DEVELOPMENT

Item No.	Item	FR
29	The students in this school seem to need an unusual amount of discipline.	D
33	This school system fails to meet the needs of exceptional students (slow learners, gifted students, the handicapped).	D
36	Our standards for giving grades to students are satisfactory.	A

## 11. Performance Appraisal

This factor assesses the individual's opinions about the procedures used to evaluate his work performance and stimulate his professional growth. The three items which make up this factor are listed in Table 18.

Table 18

## PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

Item No.	Item	FR
4	I fail to understand how my work performance is appraised and evaluated.	D
7	I think my work performance is appraised and evaluated fairly.	A
23	Professional competence is recognized and rewarded in this school.	A

## 12. Financial Incentives

The three items in Table 19 make up this factor which measures the individual's attitudes toward the school system's salary structure and benefits program.

Table 19

## FINANCIAL INCENTIVES

Item No.	Item	FR
5	For the work I do here, I am very much underpaid.	D
19	There are adequate procedures in this school system for expressing our ideas about salary matters.	A
21	This school system makes it financially worthwhile for me to seek advanced training.	A

### 13. Professional Autonomy

This factor assesses the individual's feelings of freedom to experiment, to say what is on his mind, and still feel secure in his job. The four items in Table 20 make up this factor.

Table 20  
PROFESSIONAL AUTONOMY

Item No.	Item	FR
10	I am given sufficient opportunity to try out new programs and ideas.	A
25	I can be sure of my job here as long as I do good work.	A
34	There is too much interference here with my private life and activities.	D
37	Most of the time it's safe to say what you think around here.	A

#### Administration and Scoring of the Instruments

Initially, a letter was sent to each of the superintendents of the eight districts of the study population. The letter sought permission to survey subordinate administrators in the schools of the respective districts. The letter also requested a list of the names of the administrators by building and title in order to contact them directly. The letter was accompanied by a personal letter from the researcher's superintendent to the study population superintendents which asked them to participate in the study. Samples of both letters are in Appendix D.

Subsequently, a packet of materials was sent to each of the three hundred and fifty-one (351) individuals who were identified as



subordinate administrators. The packet contained the following: 1) a letter stating the purpose of the study, 2) a personal data sheet, 3) the Power Scale, and 4) the School Survey. The subordinate administrators were asked to complete the surveys and return them in the stamped, self-addressed envelope that was provided. The materials were coded to assist in a follow up to the first letter. After a second mailing, three hundred and twenty-four individuals responded, which represents a 92.3% return.

The instruments of both the Power Scale and School Survey were relatively simple and brief. The actual time to complete the instruments was no more than twenty minutes.

The Power Scale used a Likert scale ranging from one to five. The responses were weighted so that a value of 5.0 represented the highest possible rating, and a 1.0 represented the lowest possible rating. Each respondent was asked to indicate the degree of his cognitive perception of his answer to each statement on this five point scale. The subordinate administrators were instructed to indicate on the scale by circling the number after each statement that best described the importance they attributed to that particular item for complying with the requests of their principals.

With respect to the School Survey, after each item or statement, the subordinate administrator was asked to respond according to the three point scale: "Agree," "?," or "Disagree." In administering the questionnaire, the subordinate administrators were encouraged to respond in terms of either "Agree" or "Disagree" and to use the "?" (Undecided) only if they definitely could not make up their minds or if the item seemed

irrelevant or failed to make any sense to them.

The determination to employ the three point scale was made based upon an investigation by Baehr which concluded that there was no difference in the data obtained through the use of a three point scale and a five point scale.<sup>17</sup>

For each item, the respondent was given a score of 1 if he responded favorably and 0 if he responded unfavorably, that is, favorable or unfavorable in the sense of expressing a positive or negative statement toward the dimension being measured by the item. An undecided response was scored as unfavorable (0).

The raw scores of the results of Coughlan's administration of the School Survey have not been normed. There was a possibility of a total of forty-one (41) points. The higher the raw score approached this total, the higher the job satisfaction.

#### The Interview Schedule

As a follow up to the Power Scale and the School Survey instruments, a 10% sampling of the study population was interviewed using the interview schedule listed in Appendix C. A simple random sampling of thirty-five subordinate administrators was selected from the study population through the use of a table of random numbers.

The interview schedule employed in this study has been influenced by two sources. Questions one to nine deal with the topic of power and have been adapted from an interview schedule developed by

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<sup>17</sup>M. Baehr, "A Simplified Procedure for Measurement of Employee Attitudes," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXXVII (June, 1953), pp. 163-167.

Peabody in his study of authority.<sup>18</sup>

Questions one and two attempted to gather information regarding the concept of power in general by asking the respondent to define "power" and to determine how powerful the principal was perceived to be.

Questions three and four were designed to gather data regarding the bases of power of the principal. Each respondent was asked to identify the sources of the principal's power and to rank them in the order of importance for complying with the principal's requests.

Questions five and six offered each respondent an opportunity to discuss situations in which the respondent received instructions from his principal which seemed to conflict with what he felt he should do and situations in which the principal exercised his power in an unacceptable manner.

Questions seven and eight attempted to gather data regarding the bases of power. Specifically, question seven was viewed as an index of legitimate power and question eight as an index of expert power.

Question nine was similar to the type of question used by Bachman, Smith, and Slesinger.<sup>19</sup> Each respondent was asked to rank the five bases of power as defined by French and Raven according as to their importance as reasons for doing what the principal suggests or wants.

Questions ten to twenty deal with job satisfaction and have been adapted from a questionnaire used by Chase in his study of job

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<sup>18</sup>R. L. Peabody, Perceptions of Organizational Authority: A Comparative Analysis (New York, 1962), pp. 143-147.

<sup>19</sup>Bachman, Smith, Slesinger, pp. 127-136.

satisfaction.<sup>20</sup>

Questions ten, eleven, and twelve were designed as general indicators of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. In question twelve each respondent was instructed to check the statement which best described his feelings about the teaching profession and about the school district in which he worked. Question eleven offered the respondent a new opportunity to choose a career.

Questions thirteen to nineteen examined seven specific factors identified by Chase as contributing to either job satisfaction or dissatisfaction: involvement in decision-making, the professional leadership of the principal, the amount and kind of supervision provided, the clarity and attainability of goals, recognition, compensation, and work load.<sup>21</sup>

The final question asked each respondent to briefly summarize his feelings about his job.

### Statistical Treatment

The responses on the Bases of Power Scale are weighted so that a value of 5.0 represents the highest possible rating, and 1.0 represents the lowest possible rating. The mean ratings of each of the bases of power are calculated in order to measure the level of importance the subordinate administrators perceive for complying with the requests of their principals.

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<sup>20</sup>Francis S. Chase, "Factors Productive of Satisfaction in Teaching" (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Chicago, 1951), pp. 246-249.

<sup>21</sup>Ibid., p. 78.

Subordinate administrator job satisfaction is measured by the School Survey. One point is given for each favorable response, with a total of 41 possible points. The higher the raw score approaches this total, the higher the job satisfaction.

Since the mean ratings from the Bases of Power Scale and the measurement from the School Survey are both continuous scores, the Pearson product-moment correlation is used. The Pearson is subject to a smaller standard error than other correlational techniques and is generally preferred when its use is possible because it provides a more stable measure of relationship.

### Summary

In summarizing the demographic data compiled on the subordinate administrators in north and northwestern Cook and Lake Counties, Illinois, several pertinent facts are noteworthy. First, the subordinates had attained a very high level of formal education. Second, the demographic data indicated a highly experienced group of subordinate administrators both in years of experience in administration and in the field of education. Third, only fifty-six (17.3%) subordinate administrators were female. Fourth, most of the subordinate administrators were in the 46 to 55 years of age category (38%) and the 36 to 45 years of age category (35.8%).

The use of the Power Scale, the School Survey, and the Interview Schedule to identify subordinate administrators' perceptions of the bases of power of their principals and its relationship to subordinate administrator job satisfaction is viewed as an improvement over the

techniques used in previous studies. The sequential review of the format in this chapter allows for meaningful interpretation and analysis of the data in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The specific concern of this study is to investigate two main propositions: first, to determine what importance subordinate administrators ascribe to the bases of power as reasons for complying with the requests of their principals; and, second, to determine the relationship between the bases of power which subordinate administrators ascribe to the administrative behavior of their principals and subordinate administrator job satisfaction.

Through the utilization of the Bases of Power Scale and the School Survey, three hundred and twenty-four (324) subordinate administrators attempted to identify the relationship between the bases of power and job satisfaction. In addition, thirty-five subordinate administrators were personally interviewed to provide further insight into the relationship.

This chapter will review the compiled data of the study group population for each of the five hypotheses. The review of the data will attempt to identify the relationship between each base of power and job satisfaction. Appropriate tables will be utilized in this chapter.

During the personal interviews, the thirty-five subordinate administrators were asked to define power in their own words. The definition of power differed greatly. That difference in interpretation

should occur is not surprising; for as stated in Chapter II, there seems to be a different definition of power for each individual who discusses the concept. Table 21 summarizes the responses.

Table 21  
DEFINITIONS OF POWER

Definition Category	Number	Percentage
Authority	9	26%
Get things done	8	23%
Decision-making	5	14%
Control	4	11%
Position	3	9%
Influence	2	6%
Miscellaneous	4	11%
	<u>35</u>	<u>100%</u>

As might be expected, at least a fourth of the interviewees defined power as authority, a related concept. The two terms, power and authority, are often used interchangeably with no explicit distinctions between them.

When I think of power, authority comes to mind. They go hand-in-hand.

I don't like the word "power"; I would prefer authority. Power is a negative term; authority is positive.

Also as expected, nearly a fourth of the interviewees defined power in terms of "getting things done." Other commonly used terms-- control, position, and influence--were used to define power, for example:

Power is the ability to control supplies, space, money.

. . . having the resources--money, expertise, respect of people, their confidence.



Power is position--where I can make things happen that I want to happen.

One has power when he has influence over another.

Another definition offered by the interviewees was not expected; five defined power in terms of decision-making.

When I think of power, I think in terms of the decision made. Like it or not, the subordinates do it.

One has power when one has precedence in decision-making.

I define power in terms of decision-making. The one who makes decisions, has power.

A final category of definitions was so divergent as to defy classification. These definitions ranged from the interpretation that stated "power can only be measured in terms of results" to a vague "whatever you have, the amount of what it takes to get what you want." But, perhaps the most interesting definition of power was "the ability to bring a group to consensus." In this individual's district, there was a great deal of decentralized decision-making on the part of the building administrators. Thus the reason for his definition.

Table 22 lists the subordinate administrators' perceptions of their principals' power within the building. The majority of the principals (83%) are viewed as being very powerful individuals. As the chief executive officer of the building, this situation is to be expected. While many of the subordinate administrators believed they were involved in the administration of their building, the principal had "the final say"; they perceived the principal as controlling the hiring and firing, the budget, etc. Only two individuals rated the principal as a non-powerful individual. In one of the situations, teacher strikes,

unionism, and a large number of older teachers in the building had eroded the principal's power. In the other case, the superintendent was perceived as a very dominant person. According to the interviewee, "many things that occur in the building, occur only after the superintendent says they will happen."

Table 22

## AMOUNT OF PRINCIPAL POWER

Amount of Power	Responses	Percentage
Great deal	22	63%
Above average	7	20%
Average	4	11%
Below average	2	6%
No power	0	0%
	35	100%

The interviewees were also asked to describe how the principal derived his power; in other words, they were asked to list the sources of their principal's power. Table 23 lists their responses to this question. The intention of this question was to determine if the subordinate administrators would identify bases of power other than those described by French and Raven. While the responses varied, they were able to be categorized into four of the five bases of power defined by French and Raven. No interviewee listed a source different from the French and Raven framework. The most frequently mentioned source of power was position (legitimate power). In many instances, this source was the only response to this question. The least mentioned source of power was control of supplies which corresponds to reward and coercive power.

Table 23

SUBORDINATE ADMINISTRATORS' PERCEPTIONS  
OF THEIR PRINCIPALS' SOURCES OF POWER

Source	Frequency of Response
Position	23
Respect	15
Expertise	14
Control of Supplies	2

Two questions were devised to elicit recollection of instances of the acceptance and rejection of the principal's power by subordinate administrators. The first question approached rejection of the principal's power in a rather indirect manner by asking each subordinate administrator whether he ever received instructions from the principal which seemed to conflict with his own views of what should be done. The second question focused directly on the rejection of the principal's power. Respondents were asked whether their principal had ever exercised his power in a manner that was unacceptable to them. After each question, subordinate administrators were asked to give either actual or hypothetical examples and to relate what they did or would do under the circumstances.

As Table 24 indicates, the subordinate administrators recalled instances of conflict-producing instructions much more frequently than they reported experiences of their principals' unacceptable exercise of power. Almost two-thirds of the subordinate administrators indicated they received instructions from their principals which seemed to conflict with their own standards, whereas 29% reported acts of their principals

perceived as unacceptable exercises of power. Several plausible interpretations of the difference between the two situations may be advanced. As members of a building administrative team, the subordinate administrators are very much involved in many decision-making matters, and thus there is a great opportunity for conflict-producing situations. While principals are perceived as powerful individuals, because they are generally well-trained, experienced professionals, they are not likely to exercise their power arbitrarily.

Table 24

PERCEPTIONS OF THE EXTENT OF CONFLICT-PRODUCING  
INSTRUCTIONS AND THE UNACCEPTABLE USE OF POWER

	Extent of Conflict-Producing Instructions	Extent of Unacceptable Exercise of Authority
Yes, frequently, or many times	6%	3%
Yes, on occasion, sometimes	23%	3%
Yes, infrequently, or one time	14%	6%
Yes, frequently, not determinable	20%	17%
Yes	63%	29%
No, or never has happened	37%	71%
	<hr/> 100%	<hr/> 100%

The types of conflict-producing instructions received from principals ranged from disagreements over school policy and the procedures

used to implement that policy, to misinformation and the demanding of extra or unnecessary tasks. Disagreements over procedural implementation of policies aroused the most complaints. The exercise of power by principals perceived as unacceptable by subordinate administrators ranged from the principals' general manner or attitude and specific instances of arbitrary action or abuse to failures to provide support or to take action.

The subordinate administrators were also asked what they did in response to conflict-producing instructions or the unacceptable exercise of power. Table 25 reports typical reactions, which range from discussing the matter with the principal and ultimately complying to outright rejection, or as a last resort, transfer or resignation. The great majority of the subordinate administrators would discuss the matter with the principal in order to make their feelings or opinions known. If they were not able to change or alter the situation, they would comply with the principal's decision or action. Only a few would take another course of action. As a last resort, four indicated they would resign if the matter were very serious and only after trying to resolve the situation with the principal in every possible manner.

Although subordinate administrators accept--in varying degrees--the suggestions, orders, and decisions of their principals, the question of why they do so remains. The Bases of Power Scale and question nine of the Interview Schedule attempted to answer this question. Each respondent was requested to rate each statement of the Bases of Power Scale as to its importance as a reason for doing what his principal wanted him to do. Each interviewee was asked to rank five statements as to their

Table 25

TYPICAL REACTIONS TO CONFLICT-PRODUCING INSTRUCTIONS  
AND TO THE UNACCEPTABLE EXERCISE OF POWER

Reactions	Conflict-producing situations	Unacceptable use of power
Discusses with principal, but complies	77%	51%
Accepts without discussion	3%	20%
Talks to others	3%	0
Ignores or evades without discussion	0	0
Discusses, but resists	3%	0
Open rejection	0	0
Transfers or resigns	0	0
No answer, no course of action given	14%	29%
	100%	100%

Table 26

MEAN RANKING OF POWER BASES DERIVED  
FROM BASE OF POWER SCALE AND INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Bases of Power	Bases of Power Scale Means <sup>a</sup>	Interview Schedule Means <sup>b</sup>
Legitimate	4.08	4.09
Expert	3.54	4.06
Referent	3.17	3.74
Reward	2.57	1.74
Coercive	2.14	1.35

<sup>a</sup><sub>n=324</sub> <sup>b</sup><sub>n=35</sub> A value of 5.0 represents the highest possible rating; 1.0 represents the lowest possible rating.

importance as reasons for complying with the requests of his principal. Table 26 lists the results of the subordinate administrators' ratings. In both cases, the order of the ranking for the bases of power is identical. Subordinate administrators perceived legitimate power as the most important reason for complying with their principal's requests. Expert power was a close second. Of lesser importance were referent and reward power. Coercive power was the least likely reason for compliance.

The results obtained in this study are consistent with those reported in the industrial and business studies discussed in Chapter II. In his study of life insurance agents, Ivancevich reported identical rankings. Bachman, Bowers, and Marcus stated similar findings in their summary of data obtained in five organizational studies: salesmen in branch offices, faculty in liberal arts colleges, agents in life insurance agencies, production workers in an appliance firm, and workers in a utility company. Legitimate power was rated one of the two most important bases of power; expert power was the other very prominent basis of power. Referent power was of intermediate importance, as was reward power. Coercive power was clearly the least prominent reason for complying with a supervisor's wishes.

That subordinate administrators cite legitimate power as the most important reason for complying with the requests of their principal is not surprising. In discussing internal administrative relationships, Guba suggests that an administrator has actuating force (authority/power) derived from two sources--the role and person dimensions of the administrative social system--both of which he can utilize to effect goal

achievement. The role dimension is realized through the placing of the administrator in a school role which carries ascribed or delegated authority (power) for role-related activities. Sergiovanni and Carver describe the school organization as essentially bureaucratic, with a chief characteristic being a hierarchy of authority which flows from the top to the bottom. The amount of power any individual has is, to a degree, dependent upon his place in the hierarchy. This power, furthermore, is independent of the individual. Thus, principals are able to direct subordinates in their activities, in part, due to their position and attendant status; subordinates comply because "he's the principal" or "he's the boss."

Nevertheless, principals are also unique individuals. Experience, training, personality, and personal appearance are variables which differentiate between and among them. The extent to which subordinates react positively to attempts at movement toward goal achievement is also related to this personal dimension. It is this relationship that is examined in the discussion of the five hypotheses.

The other important variable examined in this study was subordinate administrator job satisfaction. Two instruments were used to investigate job satisfaction: the School Survey and questions ten to twenty of the Interview Schedule.

Table 27 contains the subordinate administrators' scores on the School Survey. Because the School Survey has not been normed, the higher the scores approach the maximum total points of 41, the higher the job satisfaction. An analysis of the scores indicates that 274 subordinate administrators, or 84.6%, scored a 25 or more. If the standard were raised



Table 27

SUBORDINATE ADMINISTRATOR JOB SATISFACTION SCORES  
ON THE SCHOOL SURVEY

Score	Number of Individuals	Percentage
41	10	3.1
40	12	3.7
39	18	5.6
38	19	5.9
37	20	6.2
36	21	6.5
35	22	6.8
34	18	5.6
33	19	5.9
32	16	4.9
31	22	6.8
30	19	5.9
29	13	4.0
28	12	3.7
27	11	3.4
26	12	3.7
25	10	3.1
24	5	1.5
23	5	1.5
22	9	2.8
21	4	1.2
20	4	1.2
19	7	2.2
18	4	1.2
17	3	.9
16	2	.6
15	2	.6
14	3	.9
12	1	.3
10	1	.3
	324	100.0

Mean = 31.278

Median = 32.313

to a score of 30 or more, 216, or 66.7% of the subordinate administrators would fall into this category. Thus, the results of the School Survey indicate a high degree of subordinate administrator job satisfaction.

Questions ten, eleven, and twelve of the Interview Schedule were designed as general indicators of job satisfaction. Responses to questions 10 and 12 (See Tables 28 and 30) indicate subordinate administrator satisfaction both with the education profession and their school systems. When asked if they had an opportunity to choose a career which would they choose, the majority of the subordinate administrators selected to remain in education (Table 29).

Table 28

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 10

Which of the following statements best expresses your feelings about the educational profession?	
<u>21</u>	I consider it one of the most satisfactory occupations in which to engage.
<u>0</u>	I do not like it particularly, but it is better than some occupations.
<u>6</u>	I like it well enough, but there are other occupations I might like better.
<u>8</u>	I like it better than anything else I can think of doing.

Table 29

## SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 11

Career Choice	Number of Individuals
Present position	16
Other position in education	3
Other career	13
Undecided	3

Table 30

## SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO QUESTION 12

Which of the following best represents your feelings about the school system in which you worked this past year?	
<u>0</u>	I think I would enjoy working almost anywhere better than in this system.
<u>0</u>	I do not like working here much, but it is probably no worse than many other systems.
<u>12</u>	I find working here relatively satisfactory, but might like it better elsewhere.
<u>23</u>	I can scarcely imagine a system in which working would be more satisfying and enjoyable.

Questions thirteen to twenty examined seven specific factors which contribute to either job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. When asked about their involvement in decision-making, all but four of the 35 subordinate administrators expressed satisfaction with the roles they played in the various decision-making areas of their jobs. The four

subordinate administrators who expressed dissatisfaction did so primarily because the scope of their decision-making was limited to a specific area, e.g., control of pupils.

Another factor that was examined was the leadership style of the building principals. Only four subordinate administrators described their principals' leadership style as autocratic. The overwhelming majority described their principals' leadership style as democratic or participative and expressed that there was a supportive relationship between them and their principals.

Subordinate administrators identified the kind and amount of supervision they received from their principal as inadequate. About half indicated that they received little, if any, supervision from their principal and expressed concern that the principal was only visible when "things were not going well." In contrast, approximately 75% indicated that their principals did give them recognition for the good work they did. All but two of the subordinate administrators stated that the goals and objectives of their jobs were clearly defined and attainable.

Two other factors of job satisfaction were also examined. Basically, the subordinate administrators were satisfied with their compensation; only three expressed displeasure with the financial compensation they received. The subordinate administrators described their work load as heavy; however, most believed that it was not unreasonable or unmanageable and only three described their work load as a source of dissatisfaction.

### Hypothesis One

There is a positive correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principal's use of expert power.

A positive relationship was postulated between expert power and job satisfaction. It was conjectured that the results would be similar to those found in other studies and settings.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient of the relationship between expert power scores and job satisfaction was found to be +.51 (See Table 31) with an alpha level beyond .001. This level of significance indicates that the hypothesized relationship between expert power and job satisfaction is confirmed.

Table 31

#### CORRELATIONS BETWEEN BASES OF POWER AND JOB SATISFACTION

Bases of Principal's Power	Subordinate Administrator Job Satisfaction
Expert	+.51
Referent	+.20
Legitimate	+.23
Reward	-.22
Coercive	-.25

$p = .001$

Expert power is the ability to command compliance on the basis of professional knowledge, training, experience, information, and skills. Expert power is very similar to the competence authority base as defined by Peabody. In summarizing the work of Weber, Urwick, Simon, Bennis, and Presthus, Peabody identified four broad categories of authority--legitimacy, position, person and competence. These bases of authority

are similar to the French and Raven bases of power.

According to Peabody's formulation, the bases of formal authority (hierarchical authority, legitimacy, position, and office) are distinguished from sources of functional authority (professional competence, experience, and human relation skills).

With support from Barnard and Blau and Scott, Peabody suggests that if a superior can make use of functional authority (expert power), he is more likely to gain the voluntary support of subordinates. What is more important, subordinates will be more likely to exercise initiative and be more willing to assume multiple responsibilities. Sergio-vanni also supports the theory that supervisory behavior which relies on functional authority and/or expert power will have positive effects on the human organization of the school.

The data obtained in testing this hypothesis are very similar to the findings of previous studies and suggest that subordinate administrators' perceptions of their principals' use of expert power are much like the perceptions of those in various industrial, sales, voluntary, and educational organizations described in the studies in Chapter II. Nevertheless, with this similarity in mind, it is surprising, to a certain extent, that expert power has the highest correlation with job satisfaction of all the five power bases.

In the first place, expert power was not ranked by subordinate administrators as the primary reason for complying with the requests of their principals. Although expert power was regarded highly, with the second highest ranking, legitimate power was perceived as the most important reason for compliance (See Table 26).

Secondly, the demographic data reported in Chapter III regarding the subordinate administrators indicated a very professionally trained sample population as well as a highly experienced study population both in terms of years of experience in administration and in the field of education (See Tables 3, 4, 5 and 6).

One explanation lies in the range of expert power. French and Raven state the range of expert power is limited to the area in which the influencer has special knowledge or skills. While the subordinate administrators are well-trained and experienced individuals, many perceive their principal as an expert in special areas. During the personal interviews with subordinate administrators, the principals were perceived as more experienced than the subordinate administrators and as experts in specific areas such as personnel matters, scheduling, curriculum, and budgeting. The following statement is a good summary of the subordinate administrators' feelings:

He is bright and perceptive. He knows what goes on in the building. He has the ability to ask the right questions, to perceive problems. He sees the other side of an issue. He is decisive in decision-making and exercises good judgement. He knows people; he understands their needs. He makes you feel you are part of the decision-making process.

Thus, based upon the findings, the first hypothesis is accepted.

### Hypothesis Two

There is a positive correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principals' use of referent power.

A positive relationship was postulated between referent power and job satisfaction. It was conjectured that the results would be similar to those found in other studies and settings.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient of the relationship between referent power scores and job satisfaction was found to be  $+0.20$  (See Table 31) with an alpha level beyond  $.001$ . This level of significance indicates that the hypothesized relationship between referent power and job satisfaction is confirmed.

Referent power is based on the subordinate administrators' identification with their principals. The source of this power may arise from friendship, identification with a successful model, or feelings of a shared identity. Busch indicates that perceived similarities in personal goals, interests, or values are also sources that increase the effectiveness of this power base. The greater the attraction, the greater the identification, and consequently the greater the referent power. In some instances, the attraction may have a specific basis and therefore the range of referent power will be limited; in general, the greater the attraction a subordinate administrator has toward the principal, the broader the range of referent power. French and Raven regard referent power as the power base having the broadest range.

Lipham's definition of leadership as the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives or for changing an organization's goals and objectives emphasizes not only action but specific kinds of action: goal attainment or goal change. This idea of change is important to Busch's discussion of the concept of dependence in power relationships. Dependence refers to the degree to which advocated changes are assimilated by the influencee. If an influencer (principal) must continually monitor the influencee's (subordinate administrator) behavior to insure that the advocated



changes are made, then the influencee is highly dependent upon the influencer. Referent power tends to produce changes which are relatively independent of the influencing agent. French and Raven contend that the changes produced by referent power are likely to become independent of the influencing agent quite rapidly. Mills and Jellison contend that perceived professional similarity (which may be regarded as roughly equivalent to referent power) produces in the influencee a feeling of trust in the influencing agent. This trustworthiness constitutes an important dimension of the influencer's credibility and serves to enhance his expert power. Kelman proposes that attractiveness (referent power) is a critical antecedent condition for initiating the process of opinion change which is relatively independent of the influencing agent. His empirical evidence supports the proposition that more independent changes are produced by an influencing agent high in referent power than by one lacking this quality.

In his study of teacher conformity to organizational controls, Warren utilized the French and Raven typology. Warren also dealt with the visibility of the power recipients. He suggests that referent power recipients are much less visible than those recipients subject to the other bases of power since they share the same goals as the power holder. The recipients are motivated to conform and there is less need for direct surveillance. Lawless supports Warren's belief regarding visibility. He states that referent power is perhaps the most extensive form of power and that the person who utilizes referent power may exercise his power even when he is not present and even when he has no intention of influencing.

Etzioni identifies three forms of power--coercive, remunerative, and normative. His normative power is quite similar to referent power. He further links the three forms of power to the kinds of involvement that the participants in organizations have with the organization. According to Etzioni, organizations utilizing normative power (referent power) are characterized by moral involvement which is a high-intensity form of involvement lacking in organizations which use the other two forms of power. Etzioni also examines the kind of integration of members found in an organization utilizing normative power (referent power). He states that consensus is highest in normative organizations and that there are few blockages to communications between ranks in normative organizations.

Deci emphasizes the importance of referent power to leadership. He maintains that individuals who are placed in leadership roles, but whose personal characteristics (referent power), without the help of the organizational structure, would not make them leaders are likely to have a difficult time as leaders. They will be formal leaders as long as they occupy the leader roles, but in fact they may have very little influence over their subordinates.

Based on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), Halpin and Winer identified two major dimensions of a leader's behavior. The first dimension, initiating structure, is the ability to develop well-defined patterns within the organization, assign each member a clearly defined role, and open and maintain effective channels of communication. The second dimension, consideration, which is a concept similar to referent power, refers to behavior indicative of friendship,

mutual trust, warmth, and mutual respect between a leader and his subordinates. Subordinates generally prefer principals who are high in consideration. Kung and Hoy attempted to determine which of the two qualities was more important to effective leadership. The results of their survey indicate that subordinates are most willing to accept the directives of principals who are high in both initiating structure and consideration.

The results of this study are very similar to the data from the various studies reviewed in Chapter II. Subordinate administrators considered referent power as the second most important source of their principals' power (See Table 23). Referent power was ranked as the third most important reason for complying with principals' requests. Finally, although the correlation was weak, referent power did correlate positively with job satisfaction. Thus, the second hypothesis is accepted based upon the findings.

### Hypothesis Three

There is a negative correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principal's use of reward power.

A negative relationship was postulated between reward power and job satisfaction. It was conjectured that the results would be similar to those found in other studies and settings.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient of the relationship between reward power scores and job satisfaction was found to be  $-.22$  (See Table 31) with an alpha level beyond  $.001$ . This level of significance indicates that the hypothesized relationship between

reward power and job satisfaction is confirmed.

Reward power is based on the superior's ability to reward subordinates; it is founded on the subordinate's perception that the superior can mediate rewards for him. Pay increases, recognition, special favors, favorable work assignments and schedules, better equipment, and so on, are among the reward incentives available to the principals. According to French and Raven, the rewards must be acceptable to the subordinate or must be desired by him in order for this power base to be effective. With respect to this study, reward power has been perceived by the subordinate administrators to be of little importance. Control of supplies (rewards) was the least frequently mentioned source of the principal's power (Table 23). In both the survey and the personal interviews, reward power was ranked fourth by subordinate administrators as an important reason for complying with the requests of their principals. (Table 26) In fact, reward power did not receive a ranking higher than a "3." Most subordinate administrators felt strongly against reward power, were not concerned with it, and simply stated that they did not comply with their principal's requests because of this reason. One department chairman stated "I'm aware that he (principal) can affect things for me, but I have never had it happen to me."

One aspect of reward power is salary. Only three of the subordinate administrators interviewed indicated that they were not satisfied with the financial compensation they received. Furthermore, 81% of the subordinate administrators surveyed indicated that their salary was \$25,000 or more. One director of pupil services' comment best summarizes the subordinate administrators' feelings: "I am never really

concerned with it (compensation). I have always been treated fairly. Salaries are excellent in this area."

That there is a negative correlation between reward power and job satisfaction is not surprising. In their discussion of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, Sergiovanni and Carver label money as a secondary factor. Large sums are needed to motivate directly. Regardless of what is paid, satisfaction with wages is short-lived.

Scott indicates that the more a superior is required to use incentives to secure action toward goals, the less his subordinates have accepted the legitimacy of his authority. Warren suggests that individuals subject to reward power must be highly visible, since their performance must be constantly under surveillance by their superior. Reward power is regarded as a short-term strategy by Busch who indicates that the effective use of reward power is likely to generate only surface changes dependent upon the influencer's continued surveillance and reaction to the influencee's behavior.

Another source of the subordinate administrator's dissatisfaction with reward power may be that, as Deci believes, reward power is strongly apparent in organizations that use an autocratic or authoritarian management approach. While the authoritarian approach may have merit in military organizations, it often creates problems elsewhere. In responding to question 15 in the Interview Schedule, only four subordinate administrators described their principals' leadership style as autocratic. Most of the respondents labeled their principal's style of leadership as participative or democratic, that they were involved in the decision-making process and that there was a strong emphasis placed

on a supportive relationship between them and their principal.

The data obtained in this part of the study are very similar to the results found in the other studies and settings described in Chapter II. Reward power is not considered an important reason for compliance and does not correlate positively to job satisfaction. Thus, the third hypothesis is accepted based upon the findings.

#### Hypothesis Four

There is a negative correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principal's use of coercive power.

A negative relationship was postulated between coercive power and job satisfaction. It was conjectured that the results would be similar to those found in other studies and settings.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient of the relationship between coercive power scores and job satisfaction was found to be  $-.25$  (See Table 31) with an alpha level beyond  $.001$ . This level of significance indicates that the hypothesized relationship between coercive power and job satisfaction is confirmed.

Coercive power is similar to reward power but is founded on the subordinate's perception that his superior can mediate punishments for him. The threat of transfer, of dismissals, the blocking of promotion or salary increases, and the withholding of information are examples of the kinds of punishments a superior may use.

Many of the shortcomings attributed to reward power in the discussion of the previous hypothesis may also be attributed to coercive power. Like reward power, coercive power is likely to generate only

surface changes dependent upon the influencer's continued surveillance and reaction to the influencee's behavior. Although the range of any power base may vary considerably, coercive power is regarded as having a rather narrow range. French and Raven maintain that reward power will tend to increase the attraction of two individuals in a power relationship while coercive power will decrease this attraction. Scott indicates that too much coercion may cause subordinates to leave the organization. At best, coercion may be regarded as a short-term strategy. Warren suggests that those individuals subject to coercive power must be highly visible, since their performance must be constantly under surveillance. He also finds that in highly professional settings, coercive power is weak, whereas it is a stronger base in less professionalized settings.

An analysis of the data indicates that coercive power is clearly the least prominent reason for a subordinate administrators' compliance to the requests of their principals. Coercive power was not even listed as a source of the principals' power (Table 23). In both the Power Scale and question nine of the Interview Schedule, coercive power was ranked as the least important of all the power bases for compliance (Table 26).

In his study of organizations, Etzioni found that participants in an organization that uses coercive power are characterized as having an alienative involvement with the organization, which is an intense negative orientation. Furthermore, consensus is lowest in coercive organizations, and there are many blockages to communications between ranks in coercive organizations.

Subordinate administrator responses to questions thirteen and fourteen of the Interview Schedule indicate that they are deeply involved in the decision-making process of their schools. Most subordinate administrators expressed satisfaction with the roles they played in curriculum development, budgeting, textbook selection, personnel selection and evaluation, etc. Furthermore, the majority expressed that the principal was accessible, that good lines of communication existed, and that their input was sought by the principal in matters affecting them.

The results obtained in testing this hypothesis are completely consistent with past findings. Coercive power is the least important reason for compliance and correlates negatively with job satisfaction. Thus, the fourth hypothesis is accepted based on the findings.

#### Hypothesis Five

There is a negative correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principal's use of legitimate power.

A negative relationship was postulated between legitimate power and job satisfaction. It was conjectured that the results would be similar to those found in other studies and settings.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient of the relationship between legitimate power scores and job satisfaction was found to be +.23 (See Table 31) with an alpha level beyond .001.

Legitimate power is based upon the perception that one person has the right to influence (in this study, the principal) and the other person has an obligation to yield to this influence (subordinate administrators). French and Raven indicated that legitimate power could be



viewed from three perspectives. The first refers to the cultural values which specify one individual's right to exert influence over another. The second refers to a social structure in which the acceptance of the office becomes a base of social power. The third refers to the power granted by a designated agency for prescribing the behavior of others. This research deals primarily with the last basis.

An analysis of the responses to question three of the Interview Schedule indicates that "position" was the most frequently mentioned source of the principal's power (Table 23). In both the Bases of Power Scale and question nine of the Interview Schedule, subordinate administrators ranked legitimate power as the most important reason for complying with the requests of their principal. (Table 26).

That the subordinate administrators ranked legitimate power as the most important reason for compliance is not surprising. In his study, utilizing the French and Raven typology, Warren found that legitimate, expert and referent power were all linked to professionalism, with legitimate power having the strongest association. Furthermore, school organizations are essentially bureaucratic, with a chief characteristic being a hierarchy of authority which flows from the top of the school to the bottom. The amount of authority any individual has is dependent upon his place in the hierarchy. This authority is conferred independent of the individual. Thus principals are able to direct subordinates in their activities due to their position and attendant status. Many of the subordinate administrators stated that they complied with their principals' requests simply because "he's the principal" or "he's the boss." The comments of one department chairman when asked why she ranked legitimate

power above the other bases best summarizes the subordinate administrators' feelings:

This is the way I feel about it. I see it as my job to do what the principal asks me. It is expected of me. It doesn't make any difference if I like him or not. The least desirable reasons are rewards and coercion. It's nice to like people but not necessary for you to respect them. It just makes things more pleasant.

The results obtained with respect to this hypothesis are not entirely consistent with the data obtained in the previous studies described in Chapter II. Subordinate administrators perceive legitimate power as the primary reason for compliance and legitimate power correlates positively with job satisfaction. Thus, the fifth hypothesis is not supported and is not accepted based upon the findings.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

#### Summary

This study was concerned with interpersonal influence and power. The study was designed to collect data concerning subordinate administrators' (department chairmen, deans, and assistant principals) perceptions of the bases of power of their principals and its relationship to subordinate administrator job satisfaction. Two specific questions were investigated: (1) Why do subordinate administrators comply with the requests of their principals? and (2) How are those reasons related to individual job satisfaction?

The population for this study consisted of selected secondary school administrators, namely, department chairmen, deans, and assistant principals within north and northwestern Cook and Lake Counties, Illinois. Three hundred and twenty-four subordinate administrators responded to a questionnaire survey containing two instruments: The Bases of Power Scale, designed to measure subordinate administrator perceptions of the bases of power, and the School Survey, designed to measure subordinate administrators' job satisfaction. A demographic summary data sheet was used to collect basic information regarding age, training, administrative experience, and other related items. Personal interviews and discussions were

also held with thirty-five (35) subordinate administrators a 10% sampling of the study group, in order to gain additional insights and views.

No attempt was made to analyze subordinate administrators' responses on the Bases of Power Scale, the School Survey, and the questionnaire into sub-groups, e.g., deans, department chairmen, assistant principals, and so on. The various subordinate administrators were considered to be part of the principal's administrative team; all reported to the principal. Thus, subordinate administrators' responses were treated collectively.

The subordinate administrators discussed subsidiary points during the interviews that related to their perceptions of the bases of power of their principals and its relationship to job satisfaction. The subordinate administrators' definitions of power varied; the majority defined power in terms of authority and "getting things done." The principals were seen by the subordinate administrators as being very powerful within their buildings. Four sources of the principals' power were identified and were easily categorized into the French and Raven framework; the principals position (legitimate power) was the most frequently mentioned source of power. The subordinate administrators recalled instances of conflict-producing instructions much more frequently than they reported experiences of their principals' unacceptable exercise of power. Legitimate power was identified by subordinate administrators as the most important reason for complying with their principals' requests; coercive power was the least important reason for compliance.

In general, subordinate administrators expressed positive feelings about their jobs. They were satisfied with the roles they played

in various decision-making areas--curriculum, teacher selection and evaluation, budgeting, textbook selection, and so on. The majority indicated that they were adequately compensated for their work. The subordinate administrators also expressed satisfaction with the kind and amount of supervision they received from their principals and in their principals' leadership styles.

### Conclusions

This study was designed to collect and analyze data concerning the perceptions of secondary school subordinate administrators with regard to the basis of power of their principals and its relationship to subordinate administrator job satisfaction. A questionnaire as well as personal interviews with subordinate administrators were used to collect data.

Analysis of the questionnaire data was made through the use of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. The means of the bases of power scores on the Bases of Power Scale were correlated with the job satisfaction scores on the School Survey. This section includes an analysis and implications of the study.

### Hypothesis One

There is a positive correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principal's use of expert power.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient of the relationship between expert power scores and job satisfaction was found to be +.51 with an alpha level beyond .001. Thus, the first hypothesis is accepted based upon the findings.

Of the five bases of power, expert power is the most positively related to job satisfaction. Within any organizational setting, subordinate satisfaction is an important aspect in the subordinate-superordinate relationship. A satisfied employee will possess positive attitudes regarding the organization and his superior, and his motivation to productivity will be high. Consequently, subordinate satisfaction tends to enhance the superior's ability to more effective leadership. The findings of this hypothesis imply that the more subordinate administrators perceive their principal as an expert, the more they will be satisfied with their jobs and the more productive they will be. Thus, the principal should adopt a leadership style that permits him to develop an image as an expert. He must let his expertness be demonstrated. This is not to say that the principal should flaunt his expertness but that he should use his expertness in a highly visible fashion.

One of the characteristics of expert power is that it is basically idiosyncratic. That is, areas in which the principal can exercise expert power are to a substantial degree uniquely determined by his own behavior and his interactions with his subordinates. The extent and range of a principal's expert power can not be specified by the organization. However, all principals are not equal in their expert power. The strength of a principal's expert power is dependent upon his professional knowledge, training, experience, and skills. Thus, the range of the principal's power is limited to the areas he is perceived to have special knowledge or skills.

The findings also have implications for the training of principals. In answering questions 4, 8, and 9 of the Interview Schedule,

subordinate administrators identified their principals as experts in a variety of areas. The most frequently mentioned were personnel matters, curriculum, and budgeting. In most cases the principal has substantial competence and expertness in educational matters, for undoubtedly this was the basis for his being appointed as a principal. Nevertheless, the responsibilities and pressures of the principalship continue to increase and point to the need to develop new expertise.

As a result of the phenomenon of declining enrollment, principals are moving from being continually occupied with the need for additional teaching staff and classroom space to concerns about the need to reduce staff, modify programs, and even to close schools. Traditional methods of staff planning for the ensuing school year are no longer appropriate. Rather, future staffing needs for the next several years must be carefully anticipated. The combination of the dramatic decline of student enrollment and the drastic losses in anticipated revenue makes effective multi-year planning absolutely necessary. Thus, pre-service and in-service training should be developed to focus on needed competencies in order to assist the principal to gain and/or increase his expertness in these areas.

The relationship between expert power and subordinate administrator job satisfaction may also have implications for the selection of both principals and subordinate administrators. When the central office administrators are interviewing candidates for the principalship, part of the decision should be based on the specific skills, knowledge, and expertise possessed by the individuals. When the principal is interviewing candidates for positions as deans, department chairmen, or assistant principals, he too should be concerned with the special skills of the candidates, paying particular attention to selecting individuals who possess skills in areas where he is weak, thereby, strengthening his administrative team.

## Hypothesis Two

There is a positive correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principal's use of referent power.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient of the relationship between referent power scores and job satisfaction was found to be +.20 with an alpha level beyond .001. Thus, the second hypothesis is accepted based upon the findings.

Like expert power, referent power is idiosyncratic in character; it is inherent in the person rather than the position. The principal's referent power is directly related to the degree of admiration and respect that subordinate administrators feel toward the principal as a person. Thus, subordinate administrator job satisfaction is related to the behavior of the principal. The principal's expectations of a subordinate have an effect upon the performance and behavior of the subordinate. The subordinate's self-image is constantly reinforced, positively or negatively, by the principal's behavior--or the subordinate's perception of the principal's behavior. Job satisfaction tends to be higher in situations where the principal employs a leadership style which encourages and supports the development of self-improvement.

Probably the most important task of the principal is that of creating and maintaining a favorable social and emotional climate which capitalizes on the potential of employees and provides the satisfaction that people want. The implication is clear that development of positive job satisfaction is dependent upon the integration of individual needs with school goals and purposes, and effective leadership from the principal. Thus, referent power is related to the consideration for people



dimension of leadership described by Getzels, Blake and Mouton and others. The principal who places more importance on reaching the goals of the school than he does on concern and consideration for people may ultimately reach the goals, but at the risk of the alienation of his administrative staff.

The principal sets the tone for optimal group contributions by knowing the key to good human relations. Good human relations are a significant and necessary ingredient in improving the principal's referent power base and thereby increasing subordinate job satisfaction. The principal must be emotionally secure, possess a basic philosophy of respect for individual worth, and be able to envision the potential contribution of each person. The principal must also have a good self-concept and must be fully aware of his assets and liabilities. Qualities that can help a principal develop a human relations style of leadership and thereby increase referent power are numerous. Several essential qualities are described by Brandt in a NASSP Bulletin article; these include sincerity, empathy, open-mindedness, and a basic respect for people. The sincere principal is marked by his integrity in dealing with others and his respect for their individuality. He must be sensitive to the feelings and problems of his subordinates. The principal must be perceived as a person who is willing to listen to all sides of an issue. Another important quality is that the principal have a basic respect for people. These qualities, if not innate, should be developed for greater success in interpersonal relationships. However, the key to developing better personal relationships with subordinates is that these qualities must be authentic; they cannot be superficial.

Concerned and perceptive principals might do well to take stock of their personnel within the school building and assess the interpersonal relationships that do or do not exist. The use of common sense and a humanistic approach to staff members is a sound approach. By being visible on campus and in the classrooms, and by listening, talking, acting, and reacting with his staff members, the principal can reinforce his personal interest in his subordinate administrators and other staff members.

The findings of this hypothesis also have implications for the selection of personnel to administrative positions. It seems clear that subordinate administrators' perceptions and identification with their principal's personality is key to developing, nurturing, and maintaining positive subordinate administrator job satisfaction. In selecting principals, superintendents should attempt to hire individuals who are able to develop a strong referent power base--individuals who can create a warm, friendly, open, sharing climate and who exhibit concern and interest in their subordinates.

The findings also have implications for the colleges and universities that train administrative personnel. They must provide experiences that will help prospective school administrators develop their humaneness. In the past, preparation in the field of education has adhered to a skill-competency model which focused mainly on scholarship and methodology. Administrator preparation must be concerned with more than techniques; it should involve the learners at a much deeper level to help them become not only the most competent practitioners but also the most fully developed people that they are capable of becoming.

### Hypothesis Three

There is a negative correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principal's use of reward power.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient of the relationship between reward power scores and job satisfaction was found to be  $-.22$  with an alpha level beyond  $.001$ . Thus, the third hypothesis is accepted based upon the findings.

An analysis of the data indicates that the possession and distribution of organizational rewards have a negative effect on the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators. Furthermore, reward power is not an important reason for subordinate administrators' complying with their principals' requests.

In part, this negative relationship may be attributed to the fact that the rewards available to a superior must be acceptable to the subordinate or must be desired by him in order for reward power to be effective. Pay increases, recognition, special favors, better equipment, favorable work assignments, and so on are among the reward incentives available to the principal. In answering the demographic questionnaire, 81% of the subordinate administrators indicated a salary of \$25,000 or more; 91% of the subordinate administrators interviewed indicated they were satisfied with their financial compensation. Most of the subordinate administrators pointed to sufficient supplies and equipment as reasons for their satisfaction with their district. Only three of the 35 subordinate administrators expressed a desire for a different administrative assignment. Clearly, there are few reward incentives which are

acceptable to or desired by the subordinate administrators.

Hall has indicated that the reward power system for professionals in organizations is more complicated than for other organization members. The professional typically desires the same kinds of rewards as other people, in terms of money and other extrinsic factors, but is also likely to want recognition. Indeed, while most of the subordinate administrators in answering question 18 of the Interview Schedule expressed satisfaction with the recognition they received from their principal for their good work, approximately 33% indicated they received little or no recognition and identified this as a shortcoming of their principals. It seems that subordinate recognition for good work is an important area that should be addressed by principals.

In further examination of the relationship between reward power and job satisfaction, Mosteller and Moynihan have reported that significant changes in school effectiveness will not come about as a result of such rewards as increasing salaries, decreasing class size, reducing the work load, or introducing clerical assistants. To determine what does satisfy subordinates, principals may need to examine theories of motivation, in particular, Herzberg's motivation hygiene theory and Maslow's theory of human needs.

A basic principle in motivation theory is that people invest of themselves in work in order to obtain desired returns or rewards. Examples of investments are time, physical energy, mental energy, creativity, knowledge, skill, enthusiasm, and effort. Returns or rewards can take a variety of forms including money, respect, comfort, a sense of accomplishment, social acceptance and security. Expressions of

investment in work may be categorized as "participation" or "performance."

Policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relationships, and working conditions contribute primarily to job dissatisfaction. In exchange for these factors, an employee is prepared to make a participatory investment--to give a fair day's work which is the traditional legal work relationship.

Achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement are factors which contribute primarily to satisfaction. Their absence does not lead to dissatisfaction. These are the motivators--the rewards which one seeks in return for the performance investments--to exceed the limits of the traditional legal work relationship.

The practical application of these theories of motivation requires that the principal adopt a job enrichment strategy in working with subordinate administrators and other staff members. The purpose of job enrichment is to increase the amount of intrinsic satisfaction one attains from his job. Principals should develop individual strategies that represent attempts to increase opportunities for achievement, recognition, growth variety, interest, and responsibility for subordinate administrators.

While reward power as conceptualized in this study does not lead to increased subordinate administrator job satisfaction and therefore should not be considered an effective leadership strategy, the application of the motivation theories described above may lead to increased job satisfaction and should be considered by principals. It is

further suggested that principals continue to review the existing literature on the subject and become thoroughly familiar with the factors affecting job satisfaction.

#### Hypothesis Four

There is a negative correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principal's use of coercive power.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient of the relationship between coercive power scores and job satisfaction was found to be  $-.25$  with an alpha level beyond  $.001$ . Thus, the fourth hypothesis is accepted based upon the findings.

An analysis of the data indicates that coercive power is the least related to job satisfaction. It is also clearly the least prominent reason for subordinate administrators' compliance to the requests of their principals. In other words, as subordinate administrators perceive their principals using coercive power as a mode of influence, this tended to have an adverse effect on their job satisfaction.

The data of this study are consistent with those of other cited studies. The perceived use of coercive power is not an effective means for fostering the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators. The use of coercive power as a mode of influence will tend to generate cautious defensive behavior. The continued perceived use of coercive power leads to job dissatisfaction and may tend to lead to dependent behavior on the part of subordinate administrators.

Historically, principals have been powerful individuals. Many employed an autocratic or authoritarian style of leadership and did not

hesitate to reward or punish subordinates to gain compliance. The findings regarding coercive power's negative relationship to job satisfaction imply that autocratic forms of leadership are no longer effective.

The compliance theory of Etzioni predicts that when the goal of the organization is order and the task is routine, coercive power will be effective in gaining compliance. However, the long-term result of coercion is the production of alienated subordinates.

Sergiovanni and Starratt summarized their conclusions concerning coercive power when they concluded: "Any system can absorb short periods of alienation by subordinates, but over time, alienation results in a collapse of the system" (p. 48).

In his fifteenth century treatise The Prince, Machiavelli presents an interesting viewpoint regarding the excessive use of coercive power when he raises the question whether it is better to have a relationship based upon love (referent power) or fear (coercive power). Machiavelli contends that it is best to be both loved and feared. If, however, one cannot have both, he suggests that a relationship based on love alone tends to be volatile, short-run, and easily terminated when there is no fear of retaliation. On the other hand, Machiavelli contends that a relationship based upon fear tends to be longer lasting in that the individual must be willing to incur the sanction (pay the price) before terminating the relationship. Machiavelli warns, however, that one should be careful that fear does not lead to hatred. For hatred often evokes overt behavior in terms of retaliation, undermining, and attempts to overthrow.

At best, then, coercive power should be regarded by principals as a short-term strategy. Coercive power is likely to generate only surface compliance and those individuals subject to coercive power must be highly visible since their performance must be constantly under surveillance. Too much coercion may cause subordinates to leave the organization.

#### Hypothesis Five

There is a negative correlation between the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators and their perceptions of their principal's use of legitimate power.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient of the relationship between legitimate power scores and job satisfaction was found to be  $+.23$  with an alpha level beyond  $.001$ . Thus, the fifth hypothesis is not accepted based upon the findings.

The data of this study are inconsistent with the previously cited findings in Chapter II. Legitimate power was ranked by the subordinate administrators as the most important reason for complying with the requests of their principals. The data suggest that the use of legitimate power by principals has a positive effect on the job satisfaction of subordinate administrators. The data also suggest that subordinate administrators clearly see themselves as subordinates in a hierarchy. They perceive themselves in a hierarchy of authority which flows from the top of the school organization to the bottom. The amount of authority any individual has is dependent upon his place in the hierarchy. This authority is conferred independent of the individual. Thus principals are able to direct subordinate administrators in their activities due to their position and attendant status.



The findings seem to imply a simplistic view toward leadership. Legitimate power is simple power of position and does not involve leadership, for leadership involves what a person does above and beyond the basic requirements of his position. It is the persuasion of individuals and innovativeness in ideas and decision-making that differentiates leadership from the sheer possession of power. A mechanical reliance on organizational position would bring about a situation in which the characteristics of the individuals filling the principalship would not make any difference whatsoever. The school organization would be totally constrained by precedent and its own structure.

The usefulness of these findings to the administrative behavior of the principal is that the possession and utilization of one power base may be reinforcing of another. Subordinate administrators are less likely to question the position of legitimate power of the principal if they perceive him to be performing activities in a competent, expert manner. Conversely, legitimate power is more subject to question if competence is lacking. The significance of legitimate power's positive relationship to subordinate administrator job satisfaction is in its being the foundation upon which a principal can develop a leadership style which employs expert and referent power bases. Certainly, the highly competent principal with attractive personal characteristics has virtually unlimited capacity to bring about the goal-oriented behavior of his administrative staff.

The findings would also seem to have implications for the newly appointed principal. The principalship gives the individual his power base and leads subordinates to the expectations that he has the legitimate right to that position and that he will in fact engage in the leadership

process by shaping their own thoughts and actions and performing the leadership functions for the school organization as a whole. It would seem that legitimate power provides the newly appointed principal a "honeymoon" period--time in office to develop strategies, to make changes, to develop expertness. The question remains as to how long the new principal can rely on legitimate power.

It would seem that most principals would not prefer to capitalize too much on the "authority image" of legitimate power. Most principals have developed administrative techniques and leadership styles that help them win cooperation and support in the pursuit of the school's educational objectives. The legitimate power is there if needed in a crisis or in a "show down," but most process oriented principals would not find it advantageous to use it. In no case would they want to flaunt it. The principal's greatest strength is not in raw, unfettered power, but in skillful leadership based on knowledge, good human relations, and ability to get things done.

#### For Further Study

The following suggestions are presented as possible implications for future research:

1. This study examined the bases of power in isolation. Often the various bases operate in combination. A study could be made of the effect of multiple power bases of job satisfaction, e.g., expert and reward power.

2. Researchers could determine if this study could be replicated in different educational settings. They could make a comparison

of the relationship of the bases of power and job satisfaction among urban subordinate administrators in contrast to suburban subordinate administrators and in contrast to rural subordinate administrators.

3. A research comparison could be conducted between the subordinate administrators' perceptions of the principals' base of power and the principals' perceptions of their bases of power.

4. A similar study of the bases of power and their relationship to job satisfaction could be initiated for central office personnel's perceptions of the superintendent.

5. Research may be conducted on power relationships between individuals and units horizontal to each other, e.g., interdepartmental or staff-line relationships.

6. A study could be conducted to determine whether there are different relationships between the bases of power and job satisfaction depending upon the age, training, experience, and sex of the subordinate administrators.

7. This study employed an index of general job satisfaction. Researchers may wish to study the effects of the bases of power in relationship to the many factors that make up job satisfaction.

## APPENDIX A

### STUDY POPULATION

Appendix A  
STUDY POPULATION

<u>DISTRICT</u>	<u>ENROLLMENT</u>	<u>NUMBER OF SCHOOLS</u>	<u>NUMBER OF SUBORDI- NATE ADMINISTRATORS</u>
113 Highland Park Twp.	5,100	2	30
202 Evanston Twp.	4,187	2	8
203 New Trier Twp.	5,563	2	8
207 Maine Twp.	10,788	4	79
211 Twp. High School	11,944	5	83
214 Twp. High School	18,811	8	81
219 Niles Twp.	5,950	3	26
225 Glenbrook	5,001	<u>2</u> 30	<u>36</u> 351

APPENDIX B

POWER SCALE INDEX AND SCHOOL SURVEY

## PERSONAL DATA FORM

Please respond to all items. Choose the most appropriate answer for each item by circling the corresponding letter.

1. What is your present administrative job title?
  - a. Associate/Assistant Principal
  - b. Director of Guidance
  - c. Department Chairperson
  - d. Division Head
  - e. Dean
  - f. Administrative Assistant
  - g. Other. Please specify \_\_\_\_\_
2. Years in present position, including current school year.
  - a. 1 year or less
  - b. 2 to 5 years
  - c. 6 to 9 years
  - d. 10 to 13 years
  - e. more than 13 years
3. Total public school administrative experience, including current school year.
  - a. 1 year or less
  - b. 2 to 5 years
  - c. 6 to 9 years
  - d. 10 to 13 years
  - e. more than 13 years
4. Total number of years in education, including current school year.
  - a. 1 to 5 years
  - b. 6 to 10 years
  - c. 11 to 15 years
  - d. 16 to 20 years
  - e. 21 to 25 years
  - f. more than 25 years
5. Highest degree level you have attained.
  - a. Bachelor's degree
  - b. Master's degree
  - c. Advanced certificate
  - d. Doctor's degree
6. Your age category.
  - a. under 26
  - b. 26 to 35
  - c. 36 to 45
  - d. 46 to 55
  - e. over 55
7. Sex.
  - a. Male
  - b. Female
8. Your current annual salary category.
  - a. under \$15,000
  - b. \$15,000 - \$19,999
  - c. \$20,000 - \$24,999
  - d. \$25,000 - \$29,999
  - e. \$30,000 - \$34,999
  - f. \$35,000 - \$39,999
  - g. \$40,000 or over

### POWER SCALE INDEX

Listed on the following pages are a number of reasons generally given by people when they are asked why they do the things their supervisors suggest or want them to do.

#### Instructions:

- a. Please read each statement carefully.
- b. Rate each statement as to its importance to you as a reason for doing the things your principal suggests or wants you to do.
- c. It is assumed that for you certain statements may very well have more importance than others.
- d. Circle on the scale the number that best describes your rating of importance for each statement. The scale is a continuum, ranging from the low of 1 (little or no importance) to a high of 5 (much importance).



## POWER SCALE INDEX

What importance do you attribute to each of the following reasons for complying with the requests or suggestions of your principal?

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I want to model myself after him because he is a successful administrator.                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. He can cause work that is especially important or interesting to me to be taken away.        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I want to be loyal to him.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. He utilizes logical argument and sound reasoning.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. He can harm my professional reputation in some way.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. He can appeal to our friendship.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. He is one of the most skillful administrators I know.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. He can cause a direct increase in my salary, budget, or other financial factors.             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. He has the ability to recognize the various "side effects" or consequences of his decisions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. He can provide important "fringe" benefits for me.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. He is responsible for implementing all policies established by the Board.                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. He can take disciplinary action against me.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

What importance do you attribute to each of the following reasons for complying with the requests or suggestions of your principal?

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- |     |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13. | He has a legitimate right, because of his position, to expect that his suggestions/requests will be followed. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. | He can generally make life difficult for me.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. | He is the Principal.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. | He is supported by the existence of organizational rules and regulations.                                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. | We have a common set of professional values.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. | He can open other job opportunities for me.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. | He is my friend.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. | He is the chief executive officer of the school.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. | He can assist in my gaining professional or job recognition or reputation.                                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. | He is an experienced administrator.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. | He has the authority to make final decisions.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. | He is a wealth of important information for me.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. | He can promote my qualities to the board.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. | He has a large say in the removal of my contract.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. | He is a line officer; I report directly to him.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

What importance do you attribute to each of the following reasons for complying with the requests or suggestions of your principal?

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- |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 28. He can cause especially interesting or valuable work to be given to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. I want to gain his respect and admiration.                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. He is competent and uses sound judgment.                                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. He is responsible for supervising my work.                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. I want him to like me.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. He can remove important "fringe" benefits for me.                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 34. He can enhance my image in the community.                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 35. He has a large say in the granting/reviewing of my contract.            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 36. He is a good decision-maker.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 37. He can dismiss me.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 38. He has a direct say in the removal of financial benefits to me.         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 39. He is more knowledgeable and experienced than I.                        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 40. I admire him.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## THE SCHOOL SURVEY

### HOW TO FILL IN THE SURVEY.

Read each statement carefully, and decide how you feel about it. You will agree with some statements, and disagree with others. You may be undecided about some. To help you express your opinion, three possible answers are given beside each statement. Choose the answer that most nearly reflects your own opinion, and mark an "X" in the appropriate box.

### WORK RAPIDLY, BUT ANSWER ALL STATEMENTS.

Do not spend too much time on any one statement. If you cannot decide about a statement, mark the "?" box, and go on to the next statement. Some of the statements may not be worded exactly the way you would like them to be. However, answer them the best you can. Be sure to respond to every statement. Mark only one box for each statement.

	Agree	?	Disagree
1. The instructional program of this school is appropriate for students in this community. . . . .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. The buildings and grounds where I work are kept as neat and clean as possible. . . . .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. My work load is fair and reasonable .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I fail to understand how my work performance is appraised and evaluated .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. For the work I do here, I am very much underpaid. . . . .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. The parents of students in this school exert too great an influence on educational matters. . . . .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I think my work performance is appraised and evaluated fairly. . . . .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. I am given sufficient opportunity to share in planning the instructional program. . . . .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. I have confidence in our school board's ability to do a good job. .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I am given sufficient opportunity to try out new programs and ideas. .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. I lack the equipment I need to do an effective job. . . . .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. The quality of supplementary materials for student use here needs to be considerably improved. . . . .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. The school board seems to understand the professional character of our work in the schools. . . . .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Little effort seems to be devoted to developing good school-community relations. . . . .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Agree

?

Disagree

- |   | Agree                    | ?                        | Disagree                 |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 15. The physical conditions of my work place hamper me in doing a good job. . . . .                                   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 16. My immediate supervisor is fair in his dealings with me. . . . .  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 17. I am required to do too much administrative paper work. . . . .   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 18. I am kept well informed about matters affecting my work. . . . .  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 19. There are adequate procedures in this school system for expressing our ideas about salary matters. . .            | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 20. The professional people in this school cooperate well with each other. . . . .                                    | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21. This school system makes it financially worthwhile for me to seek advanced training. . . . .                      | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 22. Little effort is made here to evaluate the effectiveness of our instructional program. . . . .                    | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 23. Professional competence is recognized and rewarded in this school. . . . .  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 24. Our instructional program effectively integrates the various subject matter areas taught here. . . . .            | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 25. I can be sure of my job here as long as I do good work. . . . .   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 26. In general, I approve of school board policies. . . . .   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 27. There are many cliques or groups within the professional staff here that create an unfriendly atmosphere. . . . . | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 28. The longer you work in this school, the more you feel you belong. . . . .   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 29. The students in this school system seem to need an unusual amount of discipline. . . . .                          | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Agree

?

Disagree

- |     |   |                          |                          |                          |
|-----|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 30. | My immediate supervisor shows initiative in seeking ways to improve our work. . . . .   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 31. | People in this community seem proud of their school. . . . .  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 32. | The superintendent makes sure his decisions are being carried out. .  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 33. | This school system fails to meet the needs of exceptional students (slow learners, gifted students, the handicapped). . . . . | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 34. | There is too much interference here with my private life and activities.  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 35. | I have sufficient supplies for my work. . . . .   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 36. | Our standards for giving grades to students are satisfactory. . . . .   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 37. | Most of the time it's safe to say what you think around here. . . . .   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 38. | The procedures here for dealing with grievances and complaints are fair.  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 39. | A sincere attempt is made to provide us with good physical surroundings.  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 40. | There seems to be an effective work relationship between the school board and the superintendent. . . .                       | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 41. | I am asked to read too many communications from higher-ups in this school system. . . . .                                     | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE



## INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. In the study of organizations, one hears a lot about "power". What is your definition of this word?
2. In this school, would you say the principal has
  - \_\_\_\_\_ a great deal of power?
  - \_\_\_\_\_ somewhat above average power?
  - \_\_\_\_\_ an average amount of power?
  - \_\_\_\_\_ somewhat below average power?
  - \_\_\_\_\_ no power at all?
- 2a. What leads you to say that?
3. From where does your principal derive his power? In other words, what would you say are the sources of his power?
4. Given the sources of power you have listed -- rank them in order of importance as to why you comply with the requests of your principal.
5. Do you ever get instructions from your principal which seem to conflict with what you as a (department chairman, dean, assistant principal) feel you should do? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_
- 5a. (If yes) Can you give an example?  
(If no) If you did get such instructions, what would you do?
- 5b. Why would you do that?
6. Has your principal ever exercised his or her power in a matter unacceptable to you? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_
- 6a. (If yes) Can you give me an illustration of this?  
(If no) If he or she had, what would you do?
- 6b. What did you do about it?
7. If you and someone else with your same rank have a disagreement, what do you do about it?
  - 7a. If that doesn't work, then what do you do?
  - 7b. To whom do you go to get the matter settled? Why?

8. When you need some professional advice or assistance, where do you get it?

8a. What person do you go to?

8b. Why do you go to him (her)?

9. Listed below are five reasons generally given by people when they are asked why they do the things their superiors suggest or want them to do. Number them according to their importance to you as reasons for doing the things your principal suggests or wants you to do. Give rank "1" to the most important factor, "2" to the next, etc.

- \_\_\_\_\_ A. I respect him personally and want to act in a way that merits his respect and admiration.
- \_\_\_\_\_ B. I respect his competence and judgement about things with which he is more experienced than I.
- \_\_\_\_\_ C. He can give special help and benefits to those who cooperate with him.
- \_\_\_\_\_ D. He can apply pressure or penalize those who do not cooperate.
- \_\_\_\_\_ E. He has a legitimate right, considering his position, to expect that his suggestions will be carried out.

10. Which of the following statements best expresses your feeling about teaching?

- \_\_\_\_\_ I consider it one of the most satisfactory occupations in which to engage.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I do not like it particularly, but it is better than some occupations.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I like it well enough, but there are other occupations I might like better.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I like it better than anything else I can think of doing.

10a. Why did you respond to the above as you did?

11. If you had a new opportunity to choose a career, which would you choose?

Why?

12. Which of the following best represents your feeling about the school system in which you worked this past year?

\_\_\_\_\_ I think I would enjoy working almost anywhere better than in this system.

\_\_\_\_\_ I do not like working here much, but it is probably no worse than many other systems.

\_\_\_\_\_ I find working here relatively satisfactory, but might like it better elsewhere.

\_\_\_\_\_ I can scarcely imagine a system in which working would be more satisfying and enjoyable.

12a. Why?

13. To what extent are you involved in making the curriculum? Are you satisfied with this arrangement?
14. To what extent are you involved in other decision making, such as the control of pupils, budgeting, textbook selection, etc.? Are you satisfied with the role you play in these areas?
15. How would you describe the professional leadership of your building principal?
16. How do you feel about the kind and amount of supervision you receive from your principal?
17. Are the goals and objectives expected of you as a \_\_\_\_\_ clearly defined and attainable?
18. Does your principal give you recognition for the good work you do? If yes, in what manner does he do this? If no, why not?
19. Do you feel you are adequately being compensated for your work?
20. How would you describe your work load? Are you satisfied with the situation as you describe it?
21. Briefly summarize your feeling about your job.

APPENDIX D

LETTERS TO SUPERINTENDENTS OF STUDY POPULATION DISTRICTS

# Maine Township High School North

9511 Harrison Street  
Des Plaines, Illinois 60016  
Telephone 298-5500

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Alfred K. H. Cochrane  
*Principal*

Thomas J. Cachur  
*Assistant Principal*

February 9, 1979

Dr. Richard Kolze, Superintendent  
Township High School District #211  
1750 Roselle Road  
Palatine, Illinois 60067

Dear Dr. Kolze:

At the present time, I am writing my dissertation in order to complete the requirements for a Doctorate in Administration and Supervision at Loyola University. My dissertation is a study of power and job satisfaction. Specifically, it is a study of subordinate administrators' (assistant principals, deans, department chairmen) perceptions of the bases of power of their principal and its relationship to subordinate administrator job satisfaction. Two questions are being investigated: (1) Why do subordinate administrators comply with the requests of their principals? and (2) How are those reasons related to individual job satisfaction? It is my belief that this topic has implications for principals' leadership styles.

The study group population consists of nine north-northwest suburban Chicago secondary school districts. District #211 has been selected as one of the study groups. Therefore, I am requesting permission to survey the subordinate administrators, as described above, in your district. I have enclosed copies of the two survey instruments for your examination. The Power Scale is designed to measure the bases of power subordinate administrators perceive as important to them for doing what their principals suggest or want them to do. The School Survey measures subordinate administrators' job satisfaction. As a follow-up to the survey, I plan to interview 10% of the study population, using the interview schedule which is also attached.

To assist in the distribution of the instruments, I am also requesting a list of the names of the administrators by building and title, so that I may contact them directly.

I hope that you will approve both of these requests, as I am very anxious to begin collecting data. If you have any questions or require further information, I may be reached at Maine North High School at 298-5500, Ext. 263.

Sincerely,



Thomas J. Cachur

TJC:sc

Enc.



Maine Township High School District 207<sup>132</sup>

Richard R. Short  
Superintendent

Ralph J. Frost Administration Center

1131 South Dee Road  
Park Ridge, Illinois 60068  
Telephone 696-3600

February 9, 1979

Dr. Richard C. Kolze, Superintendent  
Township High School District 211  
1750 Roselle Road  
Palatine, Illinois 60067

Dear Dick:

The enclosed materials come to you from Tom Cachur who is the Assistant Principal at Maine Township High School North. Tom has been on our staff here at Maine for the past several years--serving first as an Administrative Assistant to the Superintendent and, for the past three years, as Assistant Principal at Maine North. He is a doctoral student at Loyola University, and I want to urge your personal assistance in helping him complete his dissertation study. I have reviewed this study with him, and I believe the insights he will gain from completing this study will benefit him greatly as an administrator and potential leader in the career of educational administration. I am also convinced that the concepts he is examining will help all of us who are looking for answers as we seek to more effectively administer the public schools.

He needs first your permission to work within your school system; second a list of persons in your administrative structure who can be identified as subordinate building administrators; and third your encouraging those persons in your district to cooperate and assist Tom in his collection of data.

We have been proud of Tom's work in Maine, and I know that you will be pleased to work with him if you can find it within your consideration to endorse his study and aid him in his efforts as a doctoral student and as a career administrator.

Sincerely yours,

MAINE TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL DISTRICT 207

RICHARD R. SHORT  
Superintendent of Schools

RRS:lb

Enclosures

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APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Thomas J. Cachur has been read and approved by the following committee:

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The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

12/19/79  
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